

# THE READER

## A REVIEW OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 46, Vol. II.

Saturday, November 14, 1863.

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At the ANNUAL MEETING of the Proprietors in this Company,  
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JAMES ASPINALL TOBIN, Esq., in the Chair.

The Report of the Directors for the Year 1862 was read; it  
showed:—

That the Fire Premiums of the Year were £426,065 0 0  
Against those in 1861, which were 360,181 0 0  
Giving an increase in 1862 of £75,884 0 0  
That the new Life business comprised the issue of 785 Policies, insuring 467,334 0 0  
On which the Annual Premiums were 15,935 7 11  
That there was added to the Life Reserve 79,277 11 4  
That the balance of Undivided Profit was increased 25,725 9 7  
That the Invested Funds of the Company amounted to 147,808 8

In reference to the very large increase of £75,000 in the Fire Premiums of the year, it was remarked in the Report, "The Premiums paid to a company are the measure of that company's business of all kinds; the Directors therefore prefer that test of progress to any the duty collected may afford, as that applies to only a part of a company's business, and a large share of that part may be, and often is, re-insured with other offices. In this view the yearly addition to the Fire Premiums of the Liverpool and London Company must be very gratifying to the proprietors."

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STITUTION, 14, John Street, Adelphi, London.—During  
the recent heavy gales some of the boats of the Royal National  
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crews of the following shipwrecked vessels:—Barque *Tawsworth*,  
of Norway, 17 men; schooner *Northern Lights*, of Preston, 4;  
schooner *Arion*, of Workington, 4; schooner *Gipsy*, of Drogheda,  
4; smack *Saucy Jack*, of Inverness, 1; barque *Marietta*, of  
Lisbon, 1; and barque *Providence*, of Dantzig, 7. Total lives  
saved, 35. The lifeboats also assisted in bringing safely into  
port, with their crews, consisting of 20 men, the Italian brig  
*Camogino*; the schooner *Sir Colin Campbell*, of Whitby; the  
schooner *Guilia*, of Palermo; and the ketch *Snip*, of Amsterdam.  
The lifeboats also went off in reply to signals of distress on  
twelve occasions, but their services were not ultimately required.  
The amount of reward paid for all these services was £100. The  
Committee of the Institution appeal to the public for assistance  
to enable them to meet the continued heavy demands on the  
Society's 125 lifeboat establishments. Since the establishment  
of the Institution, nearly 14,000 lives have been saved by its  
lifeboats, and by shore-boats, to the crews of which it has  
granted rewards. Contributions in aid of the funds of the  
Lifeboat Institution are received by all the London and County  
Bankers; and by the Secretary, at the Institution, 14, John  
Street, Adelphi, London.

### UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, That the  
next HALF-YEARLY EXAMINATION for MATRICULATION  
in this University will COMMENCE on MONDAY, the  
11th of JANUARY, 1864. In addition to the Metropolitan  
Examination, a Provincial PASS Examination will be held in  
the Town Hall, Leeds.

Every Candidate is required to transmit his Certificate of Age  
to the Registrar (Burlington House, London, W.) at least fourteen  
days before the commencement of the Examination.

The Matriculation Examination is accepted by the Council of  
Military Education as an equivalent for the Entrance Examination  
otherwise imposed on Candidates for admission to the  
Royal Military College, Sandhurst.—It is among those Examinations  
of which every Medical Student commencing his profes-  
sional studies is required to have passed some one; and is  
accepted by the Royal College of Surgeons of England in place  
of the Preliminary Examination otherwise imposed on Candidates  
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it is necessary for every person entering upon Articles of  
Clerkship to an Attorney to have passed some one, whilst those  
who pass it in the *first division* are exempted from *one year's* Service.

N.B. THE MIDSUMMER MATRICULATION EXAMINATION  
WILL HENCEFORTH COMMENCE ON THE LAST MONDAY IN  
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WILLIAM B. CARPENTER, M.D.,  
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A SUMMARY OF SCIENTIFIC PROGRESS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

A portion of the Journal will be specially reserved for Notes and Correspondence regarding new scientific discoveries which are deemed worthy of being recorded; and men of science are invited to make this section a medium of communication between themselves and the public.

The JOURNAL OF SCIENCE will be edited by Mr. JAMES SAMUELSON, Founder and late Editor of the *Popular Science Review*, and Author of Works on Natural History, conjointly with Mr. WILLIAM CROOKES, F.R.S., Editor of the *Chemical News*. Amongst those who have already given in their names as Contributors are the following eminent writers and observers:—

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It is hardly needful to add that the Journal will be illustrated, and that all the resources of Art and Science will be employed to render this feature as accurate and efficient as possible.

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# THE READER.

*To secure its punctual delivery in Scotland, Ireland, and the Provinces, THE READER is Published every Friday afternoon at Two o'Clock.*

## THE READER.

SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 14, 1863.

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### PROMOTIONS OF DEAN TRENCH AND CANON STANLEY.

THE promotion of Dean Trench to the Archbishopsric of Dublin, and that of Professor and Canon Stanley to the Deanery of Westminster, are calculated to suggest some reflections respecting the present state of the Church of England. Both are men so much more remarkable than usual, by their antecedents and their intellectual and literary celebrity, that the promotion of them within the same week to higher places in the Church than they previously held is an act of considerable social and ecclesiastical significance.

What is a Church? Or, if that question is too wide, what is the Church of England? Various as might be the answers given to this second question, they would all virtually include the notion of the Church of England as consisting visibly of a clergy, or organization of men set apart professionally for the performance of the religious rites and ceremonies required and authorized in the land, for the incessant administration of high spiritual truth to the minds of the community, and for the general moral guidance and government of all with whom they come in contact. Inseparable in fact from this notion of an English clergy is the notion of the English parochial system—the conception of England as divided into small manageable tracts, each provided with its ecclesiastical building, and, at least, its one clergyman, appointed to perform the established rites, to administer high spiritual truth, and to exert a general moral and directing influence within its bounds. Other things are involved in the idea of the Church of England—such as the interrelation of these parochial clergy among themselves by means of a hierarchy of grades, up to Bishops and Archbishops. But, on the whole, it is on the distribution of England into parishes, and on the time-honoured spectacle of an individual well-educated man labouring cleri-

cally in each parish, that the mind fastens when it thinks of the Church of England in its most intimate connexions with English life. It is through this mode of presenting itself that the Church of England has its strongest hold in our times on the heart and imagination of the English people, and even on the respect of those who do not yield much to heart or imagination, but criticize all institutions on their merits. So long as the Church of England is thought of merely in the aggregate as a body of men claiming it as their office to administer high spiritual truth to the national mind, that modern objection to their claim which consists in the assertion that all truth is spiritually regulative, and, consequently, that every community has already its true and sufficient clergy in all who in any manner lead its thoughts on important subjects, may seem to have some force. In these days, it may be said, the real clergy of England are its thinkers, its *savans*, its speakers, its writers, of all orders collectively; and, whatever may have been once necessary, when the thought of man was more homogeneous, and a comparatively few persons monopolized it all, why now persist in offensive distinctions among orders of truths, as if some were sacred and others profane, by doing obeisance to a particular class as our clergy *par excellence*? If it be true that the Sun is the physical fountain of energy for our system, and that he is radiating his energy so fast into space that Science can forecast a time when it will be all used up, then does not *that* truth take rank as of prodigious effect to modify the whole condition of the human spirit about all things whatsoever, and is not whoever propagates it a preacher of power, and is not unintelligent resistance to it a carnal striving against the Spirit of Truth? Such is the argument, we say, that might proceed from men of extreme views now amidst us. But even by those who keep themselves far short of these extreme views, and who take their stand unflinchingly on the ground that there is such a thing as Saving Faith, or doctrine revealed as of paramount and eternal consequence to the soul of man, and that the perpetual function of the Church is the administration of such doctrine and no other to the heart and conscience of mankind—even by these, objections may be taken to such an organization as the Church of England, looked at in the aggregate. Unless they accept the dogma of Apostolical succession, or of a mystery in ordination, or unless at least they hold to that plainer idea on which so many churchmen now prefer to rest the claims of the English Church to superior respect—to wit, that it commands, or may command, the services of a highly-educated clergy, representing what is normally best in English society—they may conceive an organization of a Church that should satisfy them more than that of the Church of England. But if, instead of thus thinking of the English clergy in the aggregate as a class invested either with general didactic functions as respects the nation, or with the specific function of ministers to the national mind of all-important Biblical doctrine, the critic of the Church of England should think of them distributively as the pastors of the many thousand English parishes—as the educated, and respectable, and mostly pious men that are scattered over the length and breadth of England, each not only a teacher of all that he knows and a minister of Biblical doctrine within his assigned bit of territory, but also within that territory the priest of the stated worship, the performer of the sacred rites of baptism, marriage, and burial, and the functionary on whom devolve a thousand practical and philanthropic duties in the economy of society—then it is probable that the Church of England will assume under his gaze a character so venerable, so useful, so congruous and necessary to the life of England, as to overbear all contrary criticism. It will probably then be felt that, whatever abundance of other means of intellectual action on the national mind at present exists, through the press or otherwise,

and whatever scope for zeal in evangelical preaching in towns, or in zig-zag movements over the country, there may be out of the Establishment, the Church of England is an organization the peculiar uses of which English society has not yet outgrown and is not likely to outgrow.

In point of fact, there never was a time when the Church of England, as a potentiality, had a stronger hold on the good-will of Englishmen generally than at present. And yet, as all know, there has not been, for many generations, a time when the Church of England, as an actuality, was blown upon from all sides with a ruder and more revolutionary breath. How is this? With what in the Church of England is there at present such a quarrel? Not, certainly, with those moral and economical functions which the clergy exercise in their parishes, and exercise in the main so well that no machinery for performing them can yet be conceived better than that which is represented in our rectories, and vicarages, and parsonages. Nor yet, certainly, to any great degree, with the continuance of the hereditary ceremonies and forms of worship. So far as the quarrel does affect these, it affects them only by reflection from the real object of assault. That real object of assault is the conduct of the clergy, or even, as the law seems to stand, the compelled position of the clergy in their didactic capacity, as the appointed ministers of doctrine to the mind of the nation—the relation in which they stand to the best contemporary non-clerical thought. A Church, it is said, whether viewed as an organization for the administration of spiritual truth of all kinds to the national mind, or, more specifically, as an organization for the administration of essentially Christian truth, cannot, in the nature of things, move on from generation to generation with a fixed apparatus of tenets once for all expressed to their last particular, but must, if it is to retain its power, absorb and convert to spiritual use all truth that is evolved around it, or, at least, not be in antagonism to the most vital masses of such truth. If the true doctrine of the Christian Church must always, by its nature, be to the Jews a stumbling-block, and to the Greeks foolishness, yet it may be but a wresting of the text to exult in seeing more and more of the Jews stumbling, and more and more of the Greeks contemptuous, at the precise form of the doctrine which the Church proffers. Now, it is maintained that, in the present day of active research and speculation of all kinds, the discrepancy between the common teaching of the Church of England and the most energetic contemporary thought of England has reachd a maximum—that things are come to that pass that either greater liberty and variety of opinion must be allowed within the Church, or the Church will forfeit the character which it has long had, and which most Englishmen desire earnestly to see it retain, as a really national institute. True, the complaint, both without and within the Church, is made by a comparatively small number; and, so far as the mass of the people or the mass of the clergy are concerned, the Church, merely excluding more and more of those of our educated and thoughtful young men who would have been eager to enter it, might go on, with no relaxation of its present subscriptions, in formal possession of the parish-machinery of England for a long while to come. But the extent of the discord between what is and what might be is not to be measured by the number of those who proclaim it. *Mutatis mutandis*, the descriptions given by Mr. Froude, in the important volumes of his History which the public are at this moment reading, as to the conflict between the old and the new in the English Church at the time of the accession of Elizabeth, would be held by many, both within and without the Church, to be applicable over again to the English Church in its present crisis.

In this state of ecclesiastical affairs, when the Church of England, as many think, is heaving towards some constitutional change that shall make a new epoch in her history,

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the promotions of Dean Trench and Canon Stanley are events of more than usual interest. Both are men qualified, above most churchmen, to mediate between the Church and the highest non-clerical thought and culture of their time. And, so far as they differ in their views of the extent of Church-Reform that may be necessary, the lots that have been assigned them respectively correspond with their characters. Dean Trench goes over to a Primacy in that English Church in Ireland, in which, whatever liberality he may show in his administration of its internal affairs, yet, as it is the Church of a minority, and seems even now to await a political onslaught preparing for it in many quarters, his career, as respects the external relations of the Church, will necessarily be conservative. Canon Stanley, on the other hand, remains within the Church of England proper as the holder of its highest Deanery. He is now in a position to forward, even more influentially than hitherto, those views of an enlargement of the constitution of the Church of which he has been one of the boldest representatives; and his promotion, while it was the inevitable recognition of his peculiar personal and literary claims, is probably also an indication that his views are gaining ground.

### CURRENT LITERATURE.

#### SMILES'S INDUSTRIAL BIOGRAPHY.

*Industrial Biography: Iron Workers and Tool Makers.* By Samuel Smiles, author of the "Lives of the Engineers." (Murray.)

IT is impossible to close this book without a feeling of exultation in being an Englishman—one of the race that has wielded, as no other has, the powers of nature for the service of men, and asserted the dominion of the human brain and hand over her choicest stores, hidden in her most secret chambers. As you read page after page of these records of the mechanic triumphs of your kith and kin, once pitied as—

"Laborers that have no land  
To lyve on but hire [their] handes,"

your heart swells with admiration, no less at the inventive power and exhaustless fertility of resource they have displayed, than at the manly bravery and resistless perseverance with which many of them have met the bitter hardships of their early life, and forced themselves up from the lowest strata to comfort and independence. From the plough, the mine, the quarry, they come, eager to shorten the processes of labour, to make that which was tedious short, and that which was complicated simple—to do, like Nasmyth, in one hour the old work of eighteen hundred hours; and it will be hard, indeed, if the country that has so benefited by their toil refuses them a meed of honour and of praise. It is true that we do not, like people five hundred and sixty years ago, require our writers, when mentioning miners, to stop and explain to us that—

"Mynurs, they make yn hylly holes  
As yn the west cuntry men seke coles;"

but it is also true that the literary public has not known, and does not know, enough of these getters and shapers of the produce of our mines, these empowerers of the making of nearly all the comforts of our every-day life. Does it not sound odd to you to come across such passages as these?—

As the connoisseur in art will exclaim, at sight of a picture, "That is Turner," or "That is Stanfield," detecting the hand of the master in it: so the experienced mechanician, at sight of one of his machines or engines, will be equally ready to exclaim, "That is Maudslay;" for the characteristic style of the master-mind is as clear to the experienced eye in the case of the finished machine as the touches of the artist's pencil are in the case of the finished picture.

What Oxford and Cambridge are in letters, workshops such as Maudslay's and Penn's are in mechanics. Nor can Oxford and Cambridge men

be prouder of their connexion with their respective colleges than mechanics such as Whitworth, Nasmyth, Roberts, Muir, and Lewis are of their connexion with the school of Maudslay.

One of Mr. Maudslay's old workmen, when informing us of the skilful manner in which he handled the file, said, "It was a pleasure to see him handle a tool of any kind, but he was quite splendid with an eighteen-inch file."

This is a new field of feeling and thought, and one that it is good to dip into for a change. Mr. Smiles, in his well-known sensible, straightforward way, has given us in this "Industrial Biography," first, a rapid sketch of the history of iron and the smith in Britain, then of the beginnings and progress of the iron manufacture here, and the "mynurs" who perfected it, and, lastly, of the mechanical inventions, and the inventors that turned into tools and machines the metal which the manufacturers produced. The book is a history of iron in Britain, in the most interesting form that such a history can take—a series of the biographies of the men whose brains invented the successive improvements in the treatment of the ore and metal; and the lives are told in the style fitted to them—plain, vigorous, untricky English, fit for man and boy to read. The Keltic and Roman remains are noticed; the thirsty smith of Howel Dha, who was "entitled to a draught of every kind of liquor that was brought into the hall;" his Highland delinquent brother, who was so valuable that his chief offered to hang any two weavers to pacify his accusers rather than give him up; and then the Spanish noble before the Armada, whose words "were not so rashly uttered as politely noted" when "he did solemnly utter that it would be an easy matter in short time to conquer England, because it wanted armour." Hence sprang "the many forges and furnaces for the making of iron, and out of the glasse kilnes, as hath devoured (A.D. 1607) many famous woods within the wealds." This tree-eating at last became a serious matter, and the "voracious iron-mills" had to be stopped by the legislature. But, as "God of his infinite goodness (if we will but take notice of His goodness unto this Nation) hath made this Country a very Granary for the supplying of Smiths with Iron, Cole, and Lime made with Cole," the manufacturers began gradually to smelt iron by coal instead of wood; and Simon Sturtevant took out the first patent "to neale, melt, and worke all kind of metal oares, irons, and steeles, with sea-coale, pit-coale, earth-cole, and brush-fewell," first ridding the coal of "those malignant propertie which are averse to the nature of metallique substances." Dud Dudley, Lord Dudley's natural son, was the first Englishman who followed the German (in 1620); but the other ironmasters worried him with lawsuits, their men cut his bellows and broke up his works, and at last his own siding with Charles I. in the Civil War destroyed his chance of success, till—"sepe captus, anno 1648 semel condemnatus, et tamen non decollatus"—he had at last, in 1665, four forges at work at his "perfect invention," as he says. Wise Andrew Yarranton—in the field, too, on the Commonwealth side—was at work at the same time improving the manufacture of and tinning iron, besides proposing a land registry (part of which the present Lord Chancellor has carried out), deepening rivers, scheming linen manufactures, &c., &c.—a man far ahead of the rest of his country, "whose future flourishing," says he, "is the only reward I ever hope to see of all my labours."

We cannot pause to narrate the successes of the efforts by Darby and Reynolds to smelt iron with coal, of Benjamin Huntsman to make cast-steel, and secure to Sheffield the lead in its manufacture through the world, or of Bessemer to perfect the process. Cort, Crayshaw, Musket, and James Beaumont Neilson—with his wonder-working "hot-blast" and its benefit to Scotland—must be passed over too; and we turn to the "Mechanical Inventions and Inventors" just to beg every one to read the lives of Maudslay, Nasmyth, and

William Fairbairn. Watching the first, from the time when he was a "powder-monkey" at twelve years old at Woolwich, then stealing off to the smithy to hammer and file for pure delight, and finally in the midst of all his wonderful inventions and success, when he smiles to get a good excuse for "having a go at" a bar again:—looking at Nasmyth with his 10s. a week in London, contriving a cooking apparatus to feed him on 4s., and going without butter for his bread; afterwards having his great steam-hammer rejected in England, to be set up unknown to him in France; and atlast, in 1856, retiring with "enough of this world's goods: let younger men have their chance," to draw, to investigate the cuneiform character, and make what Sir John Herschel calls "a most wonderful discovery" of the luminous flakes on the sun's surface, the immediate sources of the solar light and heat, and this with a telescope of his own making:—seeing William Fairbairn making a carriage for and nursing his little brother, now Mayor of Leeds, then boxing his way up, by seventeen pitched battles, through the pit-lads among whom he works, braving his first failure to get work in London, making his first sausage-chopping machine, and battling resolutely on till the British Association proclaims him as one that British science delights to honour;—seeing these men, their British pluck, their cunning brains and ready hands; knowing that it is not only gain and worldly wealth that has led them on, but the manly love to dare and do for their country's weal and the good of men, we rejoice that our roll of Worthies has been so increased by these biographies of Mr. Smiles, and that he has given us new names to honour and respect. The book is one to cheer on every British worker in his course, and to make every one care more for the land that has bred such noble fellows as the writer so well and so simply tells of.

F. J. F.

#### MAGUIRE'S LIFE OF FATHER MATTHEW.

*Father Mathew: a Biography.* By John Francis Maguire, M.P., author of "Rome: its Ruler and its Institutions." (Longman & Co.)

IT has been the fashion among a certain set of late to sneer at the teetotallers; but the sneers do not come from men who know what a drunkard's home is, or have seen the change wrought in man and wife, children and home, by a drunken father's taking the pledge. Those who, on any Saturday night, have seen the pale and tattered little ones waiting and trembling for the return of him who should have been their best protector and friend; who have seen on Monday the true wife with her blackened eye, or the innocent child with its cut head, and then have witnessed the same family's comfort and happiness after the teetotal lecturer has converted the father,—no such men will refuse their "God speed you!" to the preacher of teetotalism among the classes given to drunkenness, or wonder if, in their desire to stem the tremendous flood of waste and misery that strong drink sends surging over the land, the teetotallers ask for a temporary Maine Liquor Law, even though it take away for a season the rightful liberty of the self-controlled for the benefit of their weaker fellows. No doubt long before, and certainly ever since, the famous public-house drunken scene in "Piers Ploughman" in 1362—when "Glutton glubbed a gallon and a gill" of the fresh unhopped beer of the day, and "coughed up a caudle in Clement's lap which no so hungry hound in Hertfordshire durst lap up, so unlovely it smacked"—drunkenness has been one of the chief curses of England; and, though special revivals of the habit have been due to the example of the Danes and Dutch, the introduction of gin, &c., we believe that the disease has been chronic in Britain from very early days, and that at no time since English was written would its speakers have denied the truth in the

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welcome of *Secundus Demon* to the brewster of wine and ale in the Easter-play:

"Welckome, dere ladye, I shall thee wadd,  
For many a heavey and droncken head,  
Cause of thy ale, were broughte to bed  
Farre worse then anye beaste."

But the enormous increase in the consumption of ardent spirits that took place in the ten years from 1821 to 1831 must have doubled the amount of drunkenness previously existing; for whereas the consumption in 1802, 1812, and 1821 had been nearly the same—averaging about nine million gallons and a half—by 1831 it had sprung to 21,845,408 gallons, or more than double its former amount; and in this increase Ireland had more than its due proportion, for its consumption of 3,311,462 gallons in 1821 had risen in 1831 to 8,710,672 gallons, or more than two-and-a-half times its former amount. These statistics we have had to ascertain for ourselves; but Mr. Maguire tells us that in 1839 the Irish consumption of spirits was 12,296,000 gallons—so that the traffic was still rapidly increasing. No wonder then that, as the zealous, loving, and tender-hearted priest visited the House of Industry—the Cork workhouse of those days—he pitied "the dilapidated drunkard," and that "the orphan child of the drunkard made his heart bleed with sorrow." In the dismal wards of this workhouse it was that he saw the dupes of their own besotted folly, the slaves of a passion that seemed to be as uncontrollable as it was fatal in its consequences. Here, in this wretched abode, was the worldly ruin which, from the pulpit and in the confessional, he had so often depicted as *one* of the results of this destructive vice; and, in the hospitals, in the jail, in the lunatic asylum, as in the haunts of infamy, he witnessed other phases of the same terrible infatuation. The danger of his country was great; how could he refuse to come to the rescue, when the good Quaker, William Martin, appealed to him once and again—"Oh! Theobald Mathew, if thou would only give thy aid, much good could be done in this city"—"Oh! Theobald Mathew, if thou would but take the cause in hand!" The hour had struck, and the man was not wanting. On Tuesday, the 10th of April, 1838, he took the pledge, "Here goes, in the name of God!" and signed as follows—"Rev. Theobald Mathew, C.C., Cove Street, No. 1." The "Here goes" and the act are characteristic of the man, indicating at once the qualities that led to his extraordinary success—his genial, almost rollicking manner, his energy and *go*, and his willingness to deny himself for others' good. He had found true what many of us have witnessed since, that the endeavour to discourage drunkenness, when you drink moderately yourself, does "not meet with the success you desire," and that, to reform others, you must take the pledge with them yourself. The "love for affording pleasure to, or conferring happiness on others," says Mr. Maguire, "was one of the most marked characteristics, indeed passions, of Father Mathew's beneficent nature." Born on October 10, 1790, in the "Golden Vale" of Tipperary, in the mansion of his father's patron; then removed to that father's farm; his mother's pet, promising her, before he is twelve, that he will be a priest—the boy grew up a gentle, unselfish, cheerful fellow. He was obliged to leave Maynooth for having a few friends in his rooms, and then joined the lowliest and poorest of the regular orders in Ireland—the Capuchins of Kilkenny. His fame as a preacher and confessor soon spread through the city; but, his bishop having suspended him, in consequence of a false report, he went to Cork, where he established literary and industrial schools, and worked heroically during the cholera there in 1832. Here is one incident of his life then:—

He had administered the last rites of religion to a young man, in whom he had a special interest, and, having received a summons to another part of the hospital, he hurriedly quitted the ward, from which he was absent but for a short time. On his return he approached the bed in which he had left the young man alive; but the bed was

now unoccupied. "Nurse, nurse! what has become of the young man who lay in this bed?" asked Father Mathew. "Dead, sir," was the laconic answer. "Dead!—it cannot be—where is he?" "The corpse is taken to the dead-house, sir." "I can't believe he is dead—I must go myself and see," said Father Mathew; and he at once proceeded to the ghastly chamber to which the dead were borne, previous to being taken out for interment. It presented an awful spectacle indeed. At one end was a pile of miserable coffins—the merest shells, made of thin boards, and knocked together with a few nails. Some of these wretched receptacles were on the floor, either with their lids fastened down, or open and awaiting their future occupants. On tables, and also on the floor, lay a number of bodies, in each of which a heart throbbed and a soul dwelt a few hours before. Some lay, blue and distorted, in the sheet in which they had been snatched from the bed on which they died; more were wrapped, like mummies, in similar sheets, which had been covered with pitch or tar, liberally laid on to prevent contagion. Amidst that scene of death in its most appalling aspect, there was a horrid bustle of life: coffins being nailed down with noisy clatter—sheets being rapidly covered over with a black and seething substance—bodies being moved from place to place, and tumbled into their last receptacle with the haste and the indifference which a terrible familiarity with death engenders in the minds of a certain class—orders hoarsely given—figures moving or reeling to and fro; for it was necessary that those who performed the horrid and revolting duties of that chamber should be well plied with whisky: it was the custom of the time and the necessity of the moment. Into this scene of horrors, partly lighted by a few coarse flickering candles, Father Mathew hurriedly entered. Even the strongest might have recoiled at the spectacle which met his sight; but he only thought of the object of his mission. There lay the body, and near it were two men preparing the tarred sheet in which they were to wrap it. "Stop, stop!" said Father Mathew, "surely the young man can't be dead!" "Dead, your reverence! God forbid you or me would be as dead as that poor fellow—the Lord have mercy on his soul!" said one of the men. "No, no, I can't believe it—I was speaking to him a moment before I left the ward—let me try." "Wisha, try, if you plaze, your reverence; but he's as dead as a door-nail; and shure it doesn't take long to carry a man off in those times—God be between us and harm!" There was a momentary suspension of the loathsome work as Father Mathew knelt down beside the body, and pressed his hand lightly over the region of the heart. A group, such as few, save perhaps those who loved to paint the terrible and the hideous, would desire to see near them, clustered round the devoted priest; and not a sound was heard for a time in that chamber of death. There was a suspense of a moment—it seemed an age—when Father Mathew cried out, exultingly—"Thank God! he is alive!—I feel his heart beat—thank God, thank God!" It was quite true—life was not extinct; and, restoratives having been applied, the young man was removed to another part of the hospital—and in a few days after he was able to pour forth his gratitude to him who, through God's mercy, had rescued him from inevitable death.

It was in Cork that Father Mathew said "Here goes, in the name of God;" and the cause he had adopted did *go* through the land, conquering and to conquer, so that, by 1843, the consumption of spirits (which had been 12,296,000 gallons four years before) had sunk to 5,290,650 gallons, only 500,000 more than it had been in 1802; the number of commitments had dropped from 12,049 to 8620, the sentences to transportation from 916 to 482, and the sentences to death from 66 to 16. Father Mathew had destroyed half the crime of the land; and George Roe, the great Dublin distiller, could say to him—"No man has done me more injury than you have, Father Mathew; but I forget all in the great good you have done my country."

"Has Father Mathew's work survived him?" asks Mr. Maguire, and answers, "Conscientiously speaking, I feel convinced it has."

That the mass of the Irish people have not adhered to the pledge, is true; but, assuming the possibility that they would have done so, had Father Mathew retained for some years longer the same vigour of constitution and physical activity which he enjoyed in the height of the

temperance agitation, and had he been able to devote his undivided attention to the completion of his work—is it within the bounds of human possibility that any moral movement could have withstood the combined influence of such discouraging causes as those which the temperance movement had to encounter? Let us be just to Father Mathew, and to his followers; and let us remember the succession of events which pressed with disheartening effect upon the temperance cause and the Irish people—the terrible and protracted famine—the political disturbance of 1848, and the reaction which necessarily followed the impaired health of Father Mathew—his long absence from Ireland, extending over a period of two years and a half, from June 1849 to December 1851—his gradual decay, which admitted but of feeble and intermittent efforts on his part—and the depression and want of public spirit, which the poverty and misery of the country induced. What human cause—what cause which relied for its sustenance upon a high moral tone and pride of spirit, individual as well as national—could have resisted influences such as these? The wonder is, not that they acted so injuriously as they did, but that they did not act more fatally than they did; for, in spite of all that has happened to discourage and depress, the organization is not destroyed. In every city, in every town, in every parish, there are still numbers who have remained faithful to the practice of total abstinence, and there are everywhere to be found the ready elements of future revival. Living examples of the value of sobriety—its value to character, to position, to worldly prosperity, to domestic happiness and public esteem—are to be found in every part of the country; and these examples preach a lesson more eloquent than words can frame or tongue can utter.

On this, the main work of Father Mathew's life, we have purposely dwelt, though, perhaps, at too great length. For the humorous incidents attending his preachings; his profuse generosity, involving him in debts; his success in England; his courteous reception at Norwich by good Bishop Stanley; his visit to America, and the refusal of the slave states to have him because he desired the negro's freedom,—we must refer the reader to Mr. Maguire's biography, only pausing to call attention to the priest's noble self-devotion at the time of the Irish famine, when, as he says—

*Men, women, and children are gradually wasting away. They fill their stomachs with cabbage-leaves, turnip-tops, &c., &c., to appease the cravings of hunger.* There are at this moment more than five thousand half-starved wretched beings, from the country, begging in the streets of Cork. *When utterly exhausted, they crawl to the workhouse to die* and when, as the honoured member for Bradford, Mr. William Edward Forster, writes:—

*As we went along, our wonder was, not that the people died, but that they lived; and I have no doubt whatever that in any other country the mortality would have been far greater; that many lives have been prolonged, perhaps saved, by the long apprenticeship to want in which the Irish peasant has been trained, and by that lovely, touching charity which prompts him to share his scanty meal with his starving neighbour.*

At last came the end. After a stroke of apoplexy, "Death stole upon him as gently as sleep upon a wearied man. He died in peace, without the slightest movement. . . . In the sixty-sixth year of his age, and in the forty-second of his ministry, the Apostle of Temperance" went to his rest. His friend has told us the story of his life worthily; not hiding his faults, nor exaggerating his merits; there is no trace of partisanship in the book; the preacher sought the good of Romanist and Protestant alike, and each alike may read the record of his deeds and words with pleasure and without offence. *Osi sic semper!* We are grateful to Mr. Maguire for his careful, interesting, and generous book.

### WINE, THE VINE, AND THE CELLAR.

*Wine, the Vine, and the Cellar.* By Thomas George Shaw. (Longman & Co.)

THERE are several well-known books in our language on the subject of wines. First, there are the "Observations—Historical, Critical, and Medical—on the Wines of the Ancients, and the Analogy between them and

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the Modern Wines." This volume, the author of which was Sir Edward Barry, a member of the College of Physicians, was published by Cadell, in the Strand, in 1775. Barry was then a medical practitioner at the fashionable city of Bath, but a few years afterwards removed to Dublin, where he became state-physician in the vice-royalty of the Duke of Portland. The work had great success for nearly half-a-century; and it must be admitted it was a very readable and entertaining book, though it abounded with errors, and there was nothing absolutely original contained in it. For, from the days of Lord Bacon, who made many observations on the subject of wine, treatises had been prepared in which the properties of wine and the process of its manufacture were explained and investigated.

The next treatise on the subject was the "History of Ancient and Modern Wines," by Dr. Alexander Henderson, of Curzon Street, May Fair, lately deceased, published in 1824. Few men in England were better judges of wine, or possessed a rarer and better cellar than Dr. Henderson—so that, with competent knowledge of the subject, taste, scholarship, and leisure, he was peculiarly qualified for the task he had undertaken. At first our deceased friend entertained the idea of republishing Barry's book, with notes, supplying the additions which more recent improvements had rendered necessary; but, on consideration, he found the disquisitions of Barry so frequent, and so much of the matter obsolete, that he resolved himself to write a history of wines, dividing it into two distinct portions. Greater unity and clearness were thus given to the matter; and, on the whole, the task was well executed by Dr. Henderson. But his work, though satisfactory and satisfying, in the main, to the scholar and man of taste, was too learned and classical for every-day practical use. Perceiving this, Mr. Cyrus Redding, who came latest into the field, determined to publish his "History and Description of Modern Wines"—a work which first saw the light in 1833, and reached a second edition in 1836. Though Mr. Redding's work is not so learned and classical as Barry's or Dr. Henderson's, still it is more practically useful, and more adapted to the fast and business-like age in which we live.

But Mr. Redding, though an old and experienced consumer of wine, has never been a wine-merchant; he has never been regularly bred to the trade; and in this respect, and in this respect only, Mr. Shaw has the advantage of him, and, indeed, of all his English predecessors. The author of the work at present before us, if we be rightly informed, has from his youth been bred in the wine trade, having been initiated into its mysteries in the counting-house of a relative, and having subsequently transacted business on his own account, or in partnership. Mr. Shaw, who has passed his grand climacteric, has been, as man and boy, close upon forty-two years in the trade; and some portion of his earlier life was spent in Holland, where there are large dépôts of wine, and a small portion of his later life in short journeys to the wine districts of France and the Rhine. Irrespective of these practical advantages, the compiler of the work before us has concerned himself with questions relating to wine duties for very many years; and, so long ago as 1842 or 1843, he addressed letters to the *Times* and to the *Spectator* newspapers on the subject. Mr. Shaw has also been examined before the parliamentary committee on the wine duties, and he has had interviews with more than one Chancellor of the Exchequer on this and cognate subjects. He is, therefore, well posted up, to speak in American commercial phrase, in all details relating to duties, gauging, custom-house regulations, sampling, racking, fining, bottling, tasting, cooperage, and knowledge of trade-marks and vintages, market prices, cellarage, &c., &c. But, when Mr. Shaw goes beyond these commercial, financial, and technical details, of which few or no professional authors are thoroughly cognisant, he

gets somewhat beyond his depth, and occasionally speaks somewhat too confidently and dogmatically. In all that relates to the earlier and more recondite history of different wines and vintages, his reading and information are limited, not to say very scanty and superficial; and he is evidently not aware of many works written in Italian and French on the subject, some of them three centuries ago, which completely overthrow his views. But, though the work of Mr. Shaw, from the desire to display his imperfect reading and research, is obnoxious to sharp criticism, yet, in all that is practical, in all that he has himself observed, his volume is a very valuable contribution to the literature of the wine-merchant's counting-house. On the old system of the numerous formalities necessary to pay duties on wine, Mr. Shaw dilates at some length. These tedious formalities, not merely in reference to wine, but to all imported produce, are now greatly abridged and simplified. The merit of these changes is owing to the administration of a man whose merits are not sufficiently appreciated in our generation—we mean the late Mr. Canning. It was Canning who placed his friend Huskisson in a position to effect these reforms, while he sustained and cheered his disciple at a time when he was looked coldly on by the Liverpools, Sidmouths, and Eldons of a past generation. Much credit is also due for these reforms to the late Lord Wallace, to the late Mr. Frankland Lewis (the father of the late ever-to-be-regretted Sir George Cornwall Lewis), and to Mr. Villiers, more than seven-and-thirty years ago one of the Commissioners of Revenue Inquiry. Great credit is also due for the simplification of all our custom regulations to the late Mr. Deacon Hume, one of the ablest and most industrious public servants ever employed in the Custom House. In Mr. Shaw's earlier days, it was unusual to purchase a single cask of wine, as we can ourselves vouch, without going to the docks to taste it; and thus a whole day was lost, and an expenditure of at least a crown, and often more, made in journeying to and from the St. Katherine docks by the long stage to the Bank, either from Oxford Road or the New Road. But now all this is changed, and gentlemen as well as dealers purchase their wines by sample.

Mr. Shaw expresses a hope that the habit of keeping wines in bond may not continue, for he contends it is ruinous to every cask of pure, natural wine. It does not very materially affect such wines as port, sherry, and marsala, with 35 to 45 of proof-spirit; but it does affect the finer and more delicate wines possessing aroma and bouquet. Mr. Shaw truly states that in many cellars in France there are 6000, 8000, and 10,000 hogsheads, which require daily supervision. In the bonded cellars near Bercy every merchant has the entire control of his stock, and employs his own men; and the same practice is followed in Holland and Belgium. That this system should be adopted here, at least in reference to French and Rhine wines, seems only reasonable.

The old proverb says "It is an ill bird that fouls its own nest." Yet, in defiance of the homely adage, Mr. Shaw contends that the wine trade is a bad one; and he alleges that the revenue from wine has kept below two millions sterling for the last fifty years, while the population has increased from fourteen to thirty millions. Mr. Shaw declares that it is "generally a desperate affair to go into the wine trade;" and he believes he is expressing nearly the truth when declaring "that, if all who deal in wine were to be called upon to pay whatever they owe in business and otherwise, more than a half would be found insolvent." The compiler of this book therefore deliberately advises parents not to make their sons wine-merchants. This seems a little extra-judicial counselling. In all trades and professions the percentage of men succeeding is small. Among nearly 5000 barristers there are not above 100 who make a considerable income,

and not above 200 who make a moderate income. It is nearly the same with academically-bred physicians and pure surgeons. The bar and educated physic and surgery give far more to the public than they take from it. With general practitioners and surgeon-apothecaries and attorneys it is different, though there are thousands of surgeon-apothecaries and attorneys throughout the three kingdoms not making bread and cheese.

Mr. Shaw complains that, in his trade, there is a great deal of touting. But in what profession or trade is there not touting in 1863? He complains that, even in the hunting-field, men try to sell their wine. But, within a week, in a hunting-field in Sussex—as we ourselves know, having been on the spot—men riding to the hounds have been heard to recommend their physic and their warm baths—why not their wine and cigars?

In the chapter in which adulteration of wines is spoken of, Mr. Shaw, we believe, as to the merchants at least, states the truth. He remarks "that pepper, milk, and everything is adulterated; and so is wine—but not in the way that those who have little practical knowledge represent." In the great wine houses and cellars abroad, different vintages and qualities, differing in age, body, colour, and flavour, are now, as they always have been in ancient and modern times—so far back as 1800 years ago—mixed together; and, if this be judiciously done, the result is not deleterious, but highly satisfactory. He, however, who wishes for a judiciously-mixed wine—whether sherry, port, claret, or champagne—should address himself to a first-rate grower, or wine-merchant; and, if he consents to pay an adequate price, he is sure to be well served. If people, however, will deal with tenth-rate houses who advertise low-priced wines—we will not say cheap, for they are dear at any price—or with publicans who add alcohol, water, and still more deleterious ingredients, the fault is their own.

In all that Mr. Shaw says as to the wine cellars in modern houses, sensible men will agree. The weekly journal the *Builder* has already forestalled Mr. Shaw on this question, and done good service to the trade as well as to all lovers of the pure juice of the grape. The man who adulterates wine with noxious ingredients is, according to Martial, a great criminal:—

"Seclus est jugulare Falernum  
Et dare Campano toxica sœva mero;"  
but he who puts it into "little poking holes," to use the words of our author, miscalled cellars, deserves also a castigation.

Mr. Shaw seems to think, to use his own queer phrase, "that port is losing caste," and that it is seldom seen on the tables of the higher classes. In this opinion this wine-merchant of two-and-forty years' standing is woefully mistaken. To borrow a phrase from the Methodist connexion, there has been within the last seven years "a revival" as regards port. Large fancy prices are now given for that article, and travellers from London houses have, since 1855, been perambulating Ireland and Scotland, buying up anything like old tawny parcels. Port of the very finest quality and price is drunk at the Leicestershire Hunt; it has again resumed its sway at Christ Church, Oriel, All Souls', and Balliol at Oxford, and at Trinity and St. John's, Cambridge, and also among the most fashionable young men at the clubs and Inns of Court. The judges who forty years ago drank nothing but port—a practice abandoned between 1832 and 1852—have again returned to their first love; and it is a notorious fact that the late Mr. Justice Talfourd invested £5000 in the produce of the Douro, one of the very best investments he ever made in his life. The wine, to be sure, was excellent and costly; but still a great part of it went at the late judge's sale for twelve and fourteen guineas a dozen. There was a very handsome margin of profit after interest and compound interest had been deducted by the executors.

Mr. Shaw makes great cry about a letter of a Mr. Ballantyne, a wine-merchant and a

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countryman of his, published in the *Times* newspaper so far back as 1807. That Mr. Ballantyne, like Mr. Shaw himself, was an experienced wine-merchant, and knew, as Mr. Shaw does, everything about the purchase, sale, racking, fining, and bottling of wines, we have no doubt whatever. All this was a part-and-parcel of his daily trade, and was as familiar to Ballantyne and Shaw as "household words." But, when Mr. Shaw backs up Mr. Ballantyne in his assertion that it was not before 1750 that the first growth of claret, properly prepared and of proper age, came to England to two Scotchmen—one Mr. Stewart of York Buildings, and the other Mr. Allan of Mark Lane—we must take leave to dispute this unsupported assertion of the two wine-merchants. Good and properly-prepared claret was well known and profusely drunk in England from the days of the Plantagenets—in the days of the Henrys, the Richards, and the Edwards. It continued to be drunk, and largely drunk, during the reigns of the Tudors and the Stuarts; and it was not till the period of the Methven Treaty that it was to a considerable degree displaced in England and Scotland by port. In Ireland, claret was not displaced by the general introduction of port till about eighty years ago—namely, in the vice-royalty of Charles Manners, Duke of Rutland, a man exceedingly fond of *des vins capiteux*, or what Mr. Shaw, in the language of the trade, would call stout and heady wines. In the vice-royalty of the great Lord Chesterfield, nine-and-thirty years previously, nothing was drunk in Ireland but claret, and claret of the very best quality; nor was it till a few years before, in the same reign, that claret, and of the best quality also, began to be less drunk in Scotland. Mr. Shaw, as a Scotchman, should remember the lines written on this subject:—

"Firm and erect bold Caledonia stood :  
Old was her mutton, and her claret good.  
'Let it be port' the British statesman cried—  
She drank the poison and her spirit died."

Mr. Shaw also ventures to support Mr. Ballantyne in the statement that the wine drunk antecedently to 1750 did not come from Médoc, which was then a barren waste. But, in this assertion, these very confident wine-merchants are both mistaken. There was a work published at Poitiers in 1565, nearly three centuries ago, called "Antiquitez de Bordeaux, par un Anonyme." In this work the writer speaks of Médoc as a country exceedingly fertile, abounding in corn and wine. De la Brousse, who wrote nearly two centuries ago, in his book "Sur la Primatie d'Aquitaine," speaking of Médoc, says: "C'est un pais abondant et fertile, car encore aujourd'hui le pais de Médoc, et celui entre deux mers, porte beaucoup de blez." More than 173 years ago, a relative of the writer of this notice possessed an estate at Médoc, which still bears his name. It still grows an excellent Médoc wine, some of which the writer has had for more than a quarter of a century in his possession. It is curious that this very *crû* is mentioned by Mr. Shaw, and also in the work of Jullien, "Topographie de tous les Vignobles connus." There can be no doubt whatever about the locality. What is now called Médoc is the ancient Meduli Medulli, and is described by geographers of 1663, in the reign of Louis XIV., as a "petit pays du Bordelais en Guyenne." "Il est au couchant," says La-combe, "de la ville de Bordeaux, entre la Garonne et le golfe d'Arcachon et la mer de Gascogne." We learn from La Quintinie that, antecedent to his time, it was celebrated for a yellow fig, which our own Wolsey introduced—into Tarring and Lancing in Sussex—and also for a celebrated cherry, called the Médoc cherry, which, by corruption in our vernacular, has become Mayduke. It is curious that this cherry, so excellent in England, no longer flourishes in Médoc.

Mr. Shaw would have us believe that the word claret is only used in England, the English purchasing their wines at a place called Clairette. This is a theory without the shadow of the shade of foundation. The

words *clairet* and *clairette* are perfectly well-known to every good French scholar. They mean two wholly different things. *Clairet* means a red wine, as contradistinguished from a white wine, such as Sauterne or Barsac, whereas *clairette* means a mixture, called by some Hippocras, by others Ratafia.

In the great Dictionary of Trevoux, the best work of the kind ever published, edit. 1732, will be found the following explanation:—

## CLAIRET—CLAIRETTE.

Au masculin il ne se dit proprement que du vin rouge paillet. Vinum rubellum sanguineum. En ce sens on dit qu'un homme est entre le blanc et le clairet pour dire qu'il est entre deux vins. Et au feminin il se dit proprement d'une eau de vie, où on a faite confite des cerises avec du sucre et autres ingrédients, cuits au soleil. On a appelé autrefois *clairet* l'hypocras, ou vin composé avec des épices. Les Allemands l'appellent encore *claret*, les Espagnols *clarea*, et les auteurs modernes *claretum*.

In Menage, in the edit. of 1750, under the word *Clairet*, we find the following:— "Sorte de vin. M. de Saumaise sur l'histoire Auguste, p. 421: Purpureum vinum hoc est sanguineum, vulgo in idiomate nostro *clairet*, nam et clara purpura est quam Graeci *oīcīav* appellant. Du Francois *clairet* les Italiens ont fait leur *claretto*."

If Mr. Shaw had read Redi he would have found confirmation of this in his well-known lines:—

"Benedetto  
Quel claretto."

There is further authority on the etymology of the word. In the dictionary of Restaut, published at Poitiers in 1765, we find the following:—" *Clairet*. Au masculin il ne se dit proprement que du vin rouge à la distinction de blanc." Under the head *Clairette* we find the following:—" *Espèce de la Ratafia*." If one more authority were needed to prove that "claret" is a French and European word, we have the opinion of old Lémyer, the physician of Louis XIV., who says: "Claret is the best wine for all constitutions; and the reason is because it contains a sufficient quantity of tartarous parts that make it less heady and more stomachical than *white wine*." Will Mr. Shaw now persist in his unsupported theory that claret is an English designation, and that the claret antecedent to 1750 was a white wine? If so, we would quote for his benefit the following passage from the learned and interesting work of Le Grand, published by the king's printer in 1782: "On appellait vin clairet celui qui n'était ni rouge ni blanc. Il y en avait de plusieurs nuances—gris, paillet, œil de perdrix, etc.—car on estimait beaucoup des couleurs bâtarde, quoiqu'elles indiquassent un vin des dernières presses." (Le Grand, tom. iii., p. 59: Paris, 1782.) As to the absurd fancy of Mr. Shaw that there was no good claret before 1750, we refer to a work called Pegg's "Cury," of which it is plain he has never heard. In that miscellany there is an account of the rolls of provisions, with their prices, in the time of Henry VIII.; and we there find that, at the dinner given at the marriage of Gervys Clifton and Mary Nevil, the price of three hogsheads of wine (one white, one red, and one claret) was set down at £5. 5s. There are other inaccuracies and errors in Mr. Shaw's work on which we do not care to dwell. His tone is too confident and dogmatical out of the cellar, the counting-house, and the wine exchange, or mart. But in these places he understands his craft well; and in a practical sense his book is a good one. With what he says as to the mixture of wines we will conclude:—

It does not follow that, because a wine is only of one growth, and unmixed with any other, it is therefore better. On the contrary, it very frequently happens that it might be much improved by being mixed, not only with one, but with several others, so as to combine body and bouquet. No rules can be laid down for effecting this; but it should be remembered that what is desired by the seller, as much as by the buyer and consumer, is the quality that is most liked, and which will be most saleable and agreeable; for no business will continue to improve, if not founded on this

basis. It must also be recollected that, although very excellent wine may often be found in a farmer's cellar, in general it is only that kind which he himself has grown and made; and, should the various qualities of the district be wanted, they must be sought for throughout the department. This is how the Paris and other wine-merchants of France, and often of Belgium, Germany, and Holland act—viz., *blending*, when they have got them in their own cellars, to suit their trade. So also must English merchants do, if they hope successfully to compete with others.

This one passage is real, solid, common sense, worthy of old Caledonia in her best days.

V. K.

## "JANET'S HOME," AND OTHER NOVELS.

*Honour and Dishonour*. By the Author of "Stretton of Ringwood Chace." Two Volumes. (Day.)

*The Heiress and Her Lovers*. By Georgiana Lady Chatterton. Three Volumes. (Bentley.)

*Janet's Home*. Two Volumes. (Macmillan.)

THERE at one time prevailed a fashion of glazing windows with ground-glass, edged with a broad border of orange colour, and that again with clear ordinary glass. Reading these three books gives somewhat the same sensation as looking through one of these windows.

The first-named story gives views of life about as distinct as may be obtained by means of the shadows upon ground-glass. The figures in it are meant for men and women; but they are the men and women, not of life, but of the circulating library. There are two heroes and heroines to match, a villain, a forgery, a disappearance, a crash, a suspected suicide, and general rehabilitation,—all so entirely according to the regular manufacture that no one is likely to recollect its existence a week after having skimmed it.

And now we pass to the orange-coloured medium, transparent and distinct in itself, and showing the work of an able hand, but all in a strange lurid colouring, with blacker shadows and more glaring lights than those to which our eyes are accustomed. The tale alternates between Ireland and the high life of the days of George IV., and thus give some excuse for the strong contrasts and marvellous incidents in which it deals—indeed, it is more like the novels of those days than in the recent sensation style. Morgan O'Neil and Honoria Verdon, both monsters of beauty and of wickedness, begin by an attachment, which is broken off by an act of falsehood on the lady's part, resented passionately by the gentleman, not from honourable, but from jealous feeling. Both becoming reckless, she inflicts herself on a gouty old peer—he upon Nesta, the lovely and innocent heiress, whose heart had been gained by the romance of his position, whilst he casts the blame of a past intrigue upon his innocent brother. The deserted peasant-love becomes an instrument of vengeance, in the approved Meg Merrilies style—strangling Nesta's first child in the cradle, and acting Banshee whenever any horror is going to take place; and of these there are many. The old attachment between Morgan and Honoria is renewed, and their child is secretly exchanged for Nesta's daughter. Morgan suppresses a will, commits a murder, and, when at length apprehended, leaps out of window into a foaming torrent to avoid public disgrace, leaving the next generation to arrange matters as to the inheritance. This is, indeed, a full banquet of horrors. But they are delicately served up; and, while Morgan's crimes are prominently brought forward, those of Honoria are only inferred, so that we are spared the disgust of contact with female depravity. Moreover, there is the relief of the beautiful character of Nesta, faithfully and patiently enduring her husband's harshness, and gradually winning his affection, so that his last words are full of love and entreaty for her pardon. Her daughter Letitia and her friend Eva, as well as "Cousin Di," are likewise very agreeable portraits; and Honoria's father is a capital sketch of an indolent, self-

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indulgent, shrewd man, with his heart in the right place, but never doing any good with it. Aunt Mary seems to be intended for a good genius; but her effect is rather like that of a Greek chorus. She does not materially aid the action of the story, and the extracts from her note-book have just the same sort of relation to the events that succeed as the choric songs to the ensuing dialogue. We think she was meant for better things.

But, from high life, murders, and supposititious children, seen through the yellow transparency, it is delightful to turn to the clear, quiet, faithful glass through which we look into "*Janet's Home*"—a true picture of many an interior. Lovers of incident may find it tedious; but it is a book of much earnest and deep thought, and not merely for a single reading, but to be taken up again and again, and fit to stand on our shelves when its two companions have long been forgotten. Each portrait is complete. Sensible, intellectual Janet, out-growing her childish uncouthness; plodding Hilary, the stay of the family, but subject to fits of crossness, which he betrays by objecting to his sister's "shouting out her words;" sweet loving Ernestine, and disappointing Charlie, —all play their parts with perfect truth to nature, and have very interesting stories to work out. But the great charm of the book is in the parents.

The mother is a Welsh heiress, whose property has been all mortgaged away by her father, and who in her penniless dependent position has been married, more from pity than from love, by a grave professor, between whose mind and her own there is a gulf, of which she shows her humble appreciation by a meek wish that her daughters may not marry very clever men. Sadly she has pined for her Welsh hills, and bitterly has she wept over her first son, as disinherited and deprived of free country air, turf, and flowers. But they have simply and quietly done their duty to one another; and, when at length the mother revisits her home, she writes: "Now I begin to see how little happiness depends on outward things; as one gets older, as one sees the end, one learns to smile at the violent wishes of one's youth, and to see that, after all, it has been easy to do without a thing that once seemed necessary to one's very life" (vol. 1, p. 247); and she finds that, in the very sight of her mountains, she had rather be walking down Baker Street to see what was in preparation for her husband's supper.

The father, apparently abstracted, is, nevertheless, the strongly-felt influence throughout the house, perhaps from the force of his gentleness. When his son has been idle at college and is coming home, "Let it be happy," my father said gently; "only something very bad indeed should cloud a homecoming. I remember I could never enjoy a welcome I had not earned; but perhaps it is well sometimes to give what is not earned." And again: "Charlie seems a little bewildered as to the capacities of my purse, and as to what his reasonable claims on it are." There is no storming, only quiet firmness, and deep affection, rather implied than expressed.

After his clever daughter grows up to companionship, he leans upon her, and she assists him in his increasing blindness; but, when the stroke has fallen, and brought its enforced leisure, his wife becomes his chief watcher and helper, and his daughter is taught not to "make the others feel now, when they were all longing to serve him, that her past care had given her a better right than they had to help him. In family life there was sometimes such a thing as a generous withdrawal from service, in order to give others, who are longing to serve, their place."

And, when the family settle in Wales, the blind husband and his wife begin their spring-time of love, and wander about together—she describing to him the scenes he had not cared for when he could see them for himself, but which he now enjoyed, "as if he had gained, not lost, a sense." Most beautiful,

happy, and touching is the picture, and thoroughly refreshing the atmosphere of goodness throughout the book. As a bit of machinery, the cleverly-described fine lady does, perhaps, go too improbably far in her manoeuvres to suppress the correspondence between her son and his betrothed; and the wilful Rosamond is less lifelike than the more domestic characters; but, on the whole, it is in perfect drawing, and a beautiful and wholesome book.

Both the last-mentioned works are well written; but can it be by a misprint in the "*Heiress and Her Lovers*" that *lay* instead of *lie* is twice used; and why will Janet not only use the vulgarism of *to leave* without an objective, but fall into the lower depth of *leaving here*?

### MR. WILKIE COLLINS'S MISCELLANIES.

*My Miscellanies.* By Wilkie Collins. (Sampson Low, Son, & Co.)

**T**HE rule that men who can do the greater feat can also do the less is not an invariable one. At any rate, as far as literature is concerned, it cannot be said to hold good universally. The fact that you have written a three-act drama is no proof that you can write a farce; and the composition of a successful novel is not conclusive evidence that the author can throw off a telling leader or a good magazine article at a moment's notice. We have heard of a very distinguished newspaper writer who said that, when he had completed his column, he felt that he had said all he could possibly think of on any subject in the world. This gentleman is the type of one large class of literary men; but there is another, though a smaller one, who are subject to an exactly opposite incapacity. They cannot do themselves justice in the limited space of an article, and they require space to show their real powers. Now Mr. Wilkie Collins we believe to belong to the latter class. Few persons can have a higher estimate than we have of the talent displayed in works like "*No Name*," or the "*Woman in White*"; and therefore Mr. Collins will pardon us for expressing a doubt whether his talent as a writer of miscellaneous magazine-articles is equal to his talent as a novelist.

Most of the papers in these "*Miscellanies*" were published in *Household Words*, and were written "some years since"—that is, before Mr. Wilkie Collins had attained the high reputation he has justly won as an original writer. At this period we fancy that the author of "*No Name*," like many of his colleagues in *Household Words*, was oppressed by the fancied necessity of imitating Mr. Dickens's style of writing. The commentators of some remote century, who have in their possession a file of that periodical, will find it a most difficult task to ascertain which of the articles were really the work of the great master, and which came from his disciples. Mr. Collins has proved his own claim to be treated as an independent author, not as the follower of any school; but, at the period when these essays were written, the effects of Dickens upon his writing are very apparent, and not favourably so. Here, for instance, is a passage we opened on at hazard, describing an old man at work tinkering up a boat:—

He is sitting on the left side of the vessel when I first look at him. In one hand he holds a crooked nail; in the other, a hammer. He coughs slowly, and looks out to sea; he sighs slowly, and looks back towards the land; he rises slowly, and surveys the deck of the vessel; he stoops slowly, and picks up a flat bit of iron, and puts it on the bulwark, and places the crooked nail upon it, and then sits down and looks at the effect of the arrangement so far. When he has had enough of the arrangement, he gives the sea a turn again, then the land. After that, he steps back a little and looks at the hammer, weighs it gently in his hand, moistens his hand, advances to the crooked nail on the bit of iron, groans softly to himself and shakes his head as he looks at it, administers three deliberate taps with the hammer, to straighten it, finds that he does not succeed to his mind; again groans softly, again

shakes his head, again sits down and rests himself on the left side of the vessel. Since I first looked at him I have timed him by my watch: he has killed a quarter of an hour over that one crooked nail, and he has not straightened it yet! Wonderful man, can I ever hope to rival him? Will he condescend to talk to me? Stay! I am not free to try him; the doctor has told me not to excite myself with society; all communion of mind between me and this finished and perfect idler is, I fear, prohibited. Better to walk on, and come back, and look at him again.

Now this is very like Dickens's style; and, if we met it in any of his books, we should see nothing exceptional about it. Yet, when taken alone, it does not seem to have the real ring about it which we have learnt to know in the writings of the "*Un-commercial Traveller*." Moreover, we think there is something of a mistake in the fundamental idea of these papers.

"The literary pulpit," the author tells us, "appeared to me at that time—as it appears to me still—to be rather over-crowded with the preachers of *lay* sermons. Views of life and society to set us thinking penitently in some cases, or doubting contemptuously in others, were, I thought, quite plentiful enough already. More freshness and novelty of appeal to the much-lectured and much-enduring reader seemed to lie in views which might put us on easier terms with ourselves and with others."

Nobody can sympathize more heartily than we do with Mr. Collins in his dislike to the whole modern school of improving literature. We hate medicine thrust down our throat by stealth, in the shape of gilded pills and powders immersed in jam; and we object to having a moral lugged in at the tag end of a story, and a text inserted between a couple of jokes. There is, we admit, a time for jesting and a time for preaching, and it is well that the two should be kept apart distinctly. Yet we doubt whether a joke improves by repetition or a tale by re-reading. And Mr. Collins's tales are exactly of the order which will not bear reading and re-reading constantly. Their merit lies in the marvellous skill and delicacy with which the plot is elaborated and worked out. But, when once you know the *dénouement*, their peculiar charm vanishes. How many of the thousands who took almost a personal interest in the fortunes of Magdalen Vanstone, at the time when the question of her Name or No Name was still undecided, would care to sit down now and re-peruse the narrative of her adventures, knowing, as they do, what the end is to be. We do not say this to depreciate the value of these sensation-stories. Each class of novels has its own merits. Champagne is good, and port is good also; and the fact that champagne is flat, if you do not drink it off at once, does not make it inherently inferior to the wine of Oporto.

Personally, we labour under the misfortune of having read beforehand, and, what is more, of remembering every one almost of the stories of which "*My Miscellanies*" are composed. For us, therefore, they have not that charm of novelty which is almost essential to their due enjoyment. This is our misfortune, and certainly not Mr. Collins's fault. We should be sorry, then, if anything we have said should deprive any intending reader of the pleasure that this collection of articles is sure to afford him. The "*Sketches of Character*" and the "*Social Grievances*" articles bear, as we have before said, too much of an after-Dickens's style and manner about them to be fair specimens of Mr. Collins's literary merits. The manner is not natural to the writer, and the comic vein he attempts to strike out is not altogether a happy one. Curiously enough, far the best paper in the book is the article on Balzac. It is easy to trace the influence of the great French novelist in Mr. Collins's works; and we rejoice to see that he does full justice to the marvellous talent of the author of "*Le Père Goriot*."

Allowing all due weight to the force of these obstacles, and further admitting that Balzac lays himself open to grave objection (on the part of

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that unhappily large section of the English public which obstinately protests against the truth whenever the truth is painful) as a writer who sternly insists on presenting the dreary aspects of human life, literally, exactly, nakedly, as he finds them—making these allowances, and many more, if more be needful—it is still impossible not to regret, for the sake of readers themselves, that worthy English versions of the best works of this great writer are not added to the national library of translated literature. Towards the latter part of his career, Balzac's own taste in selection of subject seems to have become vitiated. His later novels, consummately excellent as some of them were in a literary sense, are assuredly, in a moral sense, not to be defended against the grave accusation of being needlessly and even horribly repulsive. But no objections of this sort apply to the majority of the works which he produced when he was in the prime of his life and his faculties. The conception of the character of "Eugénie Grandet" is one of the purest, tenderest, and most beautiful things in the whole range of fiction; and the execution of it is even worthy of the idea. If the translation already accomplished of this book be only creditably executed, it may be left to speak for itself. But there are other fictions of the writer which deserve the same privilege, and which have not yet obtained it. "La Recherche de l'Absolu,"—a family picture which, for truth, delicacy, and pathos, has been surpassed by no novelist of any nation or any time; a literary achievement—in which a new and an imperishable character (the exquisitely beautiful character of the wife) has been added to the great gallery of fiction—remains still unknown to the general public of England.

Why, we have often wondered, does not some English literary man of note try to make Balzac known to his countrymen?

The work is one which even Wilkie Collins might well be proud to have accomplished. The stories, we should add, which are taken from the "Nooks and Corners of History" show that wonderful power of story-telling for which the author of the "Dead Secret" stands unrivalled amidst English writers. Whether "My Miscellanies" will add to Mr. Collins's literary reputation, we are not certain. We are, however, still more certain that they will not take from it. E. D.

### HUMAN SACRIFICE IN INDIA.

*A Personal Narrative of Thirteen Years' Service amongst the Wild Tribes of Khondistan for the Suppression of Human Sacrifice.* By Major-General John Campbell, C.B. (Hurst and Blackett.)

THERE is a mountainous district of our Indian Empire—part lying within the Bengal, and part within the Madras territory—which belonged to the once famous kingdom of Orissa, and is inhabited by a race of wild tribes known collectively as the Khonds. There is little intercourse between this and the more civilized countries of India, and until 1836, when our war with Goomsor brought us in contact with it, we knew very little indeed of this almost inaccessible region; certainly no European was aware that in these wilds two of the most fearful superstitious rites were practised—human sacrifice and female infanticide. The fact was clearly established that a regular system of kidnapping children and young people of the plains was carried on; that these were sold to the mountain tribes, kept by them until required for sacrifice, and then murdered by a fanatical mob, in the firm belief that it was pleasing to the gods. The victims, or Meriah, as they are called, were invariably well-treated, and chained only when they showed a disposition to run away. Indeed, the treatment was of such a nature that many of those whom our agents afterwards rescued felt far from grateful for their regained liberty. But the act of sacrificing, though differing in some particulars amongst the different Khond tribes, was invariably cruel. In most instances, the victim, after having been drugged, was tied to a post (one of which has lately been incorporated with the Indian collection of the Crystal Palace); and, having been prayed over by the priest, and sometimes awfully hacked with a knife whilst the prayer was being said, was smothered in a hole. Strips of flesh were

then cut off the back, and each recipient carried his portion to the stream which watered his fields, and there suspended it on a pole, or buried it in the field itself. But, as we have said, nearly every district had its peculiar way of dealing with the victim.

One of the most common ways of offering the sacrifice in Chinna Kimedy is to the effigy of an elephant, rudely carved in wood, fixed on the top of a stout post, on which it is made to revolve. After the performance of the usual ceremonies, the intended victim is fastened to the proboscis of the elephant, and, amidst the shouts and yells of the excited multitude of Khonds, is rapidly whirled round, when, at a given signal by the officiating Zani, or priest, the crowd rush in, seize the Meriah, and with their knives cut the flesh off the shrieking wretch as long as life remains. He is then cut down, the skeleton burnt, and the horrid orgies are over. In several villages I counted as many as fourteen effigies of elephants which had been used in former sacrifices. These I caused to be overthrown by the baggage elephants attached to my camp, in the presence of the assembled Khonds, to show them that these venerated objects had no power against the living animal, and to remove all vestiges of their bloody superstition.

The Indian government, once made aware of the existence of these abominations, determined to use every means in their power to put them down. They appointed Major-General Campbell to proceed to the sacrificing and infanticidal districts; and it is principally owing to his indefatigable exertions and sound judgment that, as far as British influence extends, there are no longer any human sacrifices, nor a wholesale murdering of female children. During the thirteen years he was engaged in this arduous service, he was the means of rescuing no fewer than 1506 victims, all of whom were either restored to their friends and relations, or provided for by the liberality of the government. In the volume before us, Major-General Campbell has given us an outline of his labours; and a more interesting narrative has seldom been published. It is written throughout in a most sober style, which carries conviction with it. There are so many extraordinary facts to relate about these Khonds that few would have been inclined to place implicit faith in them, if any attempt had been made to increase the highly dramatic nature of the subject by any ornament of style, or by interspersing this simple but graphic story with those long and almost invariably fictitious dialogues and conversations which find so much favour in many modern works of travel.

Major-General Campbell commenced his crusade against the Meriah sacrifice in Goomsor, where he called to his aid Sam Bissoi, an influential chief, who, with the shrewdness of character for which he was remarkable, soon discovered that his real interests were bound up with those of the government of the East India Company. Through Sam Bissoi all the other chiefs were summoned to a little hill fort.

I told them how painfully the English government had been affected by the discovery of the horrible nature of the sacrifices they offered annually, in considerable numbers, to avert the wrath of the earth goddess. I said that the time had arrived when this savage and impious ceremony must terminate for ever. . . . I told them that the British government was a paternal one, and regarded all its subjects as its children, no matter of what caste or of what colour—there was and could be no distinction between Khond and Ooryah, and, whenever the life of one was taken premeditatedly, no matter whether by sacrifice or otherwise, then assuredly would another life be required in punishment. Was it not, I asked, their own rule?—head for head, life for life; was not this their universal law? And why should not this be applied to those whose lives they took away in sacrifice? Were these sacrifices really necessary? I asked them. This I considered a most vital and important point, and I pressed it upon their consideration. I thought it better to confess that we, like them, had once sacrificed human beings. . . . But we emerged from this darkness, gradually obtained light, and at last gave up for ever our barbarous and unholy practices. And what has been the consequence? I

inquired. All kinds of prosperity have come upon us since we abolished those sinful rites. We now possess learning and wisdom, and see clearly the great folly we all committed. . . . Putting aside ourselves, I continued, of whom they could not be expected to know much, I asked them to look at their neighbours on the plains; were not their crops as good and as abundant as those on the hills? Were not their cattle better? Were they not as well off as any hill tribe? And do they sacrifice human beings? I demanded; yet nowhere can there be seen stronger men or finer crops. . . . In short, I may say that I used every argument calculated to make an impression on such minds. When I had finished my appeal, I requested that they would discuss the subject of it amongst themselves, and then communicate to me the result of their conference.

It is gratifying to add that this first meeting proved eminently successful, and that the oldest and most influential Khond chiefs of this district agreed in a manner most binding on themselves to abandon human sacrifice for ever, and sacrifice animals instead. After gaining this success, Major-General Campbell made equally successful crusades against the foul practice in other districts, until gradually the whole of Orissa was freed from the abomination. On one occasion the late Captain Frye, one of the efficient officers attached to our author's party, was just in time to save a victim from the fate awaiting her.

He was informed one day of a sacrifice on the very eve of consummation; the victim was a young and handsome girl, fifteen or sixteen years old. Without a moment's hesitation, he hastened with a small body of armed men to the spot indicated, and on arrival found the Khonds already assembled with their sacrificing priest, and the intended victim prepared for the first act of the tragedy. He at once demanded her surrender; the Khonds, half mad with excitement, hesitated for a moment, but, observing his little party preparing for action, they yielded the girl. Seeing the wild and irritated state of the Khonds, Captain Frye very prudently judged that this was no fitting occasion to argue with them—so, with his prize, he retraced his steps to his old encampment. Scarcely, as he learnt afterwards, had he got out of sight of the infuriated mountaineers, when they said amongst themselves, "Why should we be debarred of our sacrifice?—see our aged priest—seventy summers have passed over his head—what further use is he? let us sacrifice him." So this old man was barbarously slaughtered, to satisfy their superstitious cravings.

A romantic incident is related of a woman who, under the spell of Meriah delusion, had sold her son to be sacrificed, and viewed with pride and satisfaction the destiny awaiting her offspring. But no sooner had she come in contact with the humanizing influence of the British expedition than her feelings underwent a complete change.

"Whilst in my camp," writes the author, she made known to me the fact of her having another son, a boy of about six years old, whose existence, as well as his person, had been concealed from me. The body had been presented to their deity—the earth goddess—and by her had been approved and accepted as a fit offering. She now earnestly implored me to send a party to endeavour to rescue him. I was most reluctantly compelled to refuse, as the very advanced state of the season would have proved fatal to any detachment I might despatch. . . . I promised, however, a very early expedition next season, when I hoped we should still be in time to save her child's life. This promise failed to satisfy the mother. . . . She fled from Sooradah, and in due time reached the hills, though not without difficulty and danger, tigers and snakes abounding in the jungle. She dared not let herself be seen by friendly tribes, lest she should be seized and sent back as a runaway Meriah; and, if the wilder or unpledged tribes had caught sight of her, she would at once have been delivered over to her former owners; so the danger was equally great from friend or foe. The poor creature, therefore, travelled only under cover of the night; and what nights they were at such a season! A perfect deluge of water was pouring from the heavens; the mountain torrents were roaring, and bursting from their banks; and the wild beasts howling in concert with the elements. But this brave woman, the instincts of whose better nature had now for the first time been awakened, was not disheartened. She crouched in the forests by day, lest she should

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be seen, and pursued her journey only when the people of the villages were asleep—subsisting on what wild roots she could find, when the small stock of parched rice which she had carried away from the asylum was exhausted. At last she reached her village, and hovered about it for three days, not daring to enter when the inhabitants were there, but waiting her opportunity when, as is generally the case in the rainy season, all the villagers should be absent in their fields. The fortunate moment arrived; she saw her son, and, no one being present, she seized him, carried him off, and fled with all the strength which desperate resolution lends to courage. In a few nights she reached the territory of the friendly tribes, and had nothing more to fear.

The efforts made for the suppression of infanticide in Sooradah were also, though, perhaps, not so completely, successful as those for the abolition of sacrifice; but, at all events, thus much was gained, that, whereas formerly *all* the *female* children were put to death at the hour of their birth, and women supplied from other districts, there are now at least a good proportion of girls reared; and, the prejudice against them having been once overcome, there is every reason to hope that a complete revolution of feeling will ensue with regard to these poor infants.

Major-General Campbell's book will probably turn out the gem of travellers' narratives produced during this season, and soon establish itself in public favour.

### "LOTTIE LONSDALE."

*Lottie Lonsdale; or, the Chain and its Links.* By Emma Jane Worboise, author of "Millicent Kendrick," "Married Life," &c. (Virtue Brothers & Co.)

THREE years before his death—to wit, in 1728 to 1729—Defoe published, under the assumed name of Andrew Moreton, two extraordinary pamphlets—"Augusta Triumphans; or, the Way to make London the most Flourishing City in the Universe," and its sequel, "Second Thoughts are Best." Though these pamphlets, now lying before us, do not, both together, make more than eighty-seven octavo pages—the first numbering sixty-three, and the other only twenty-four—they contain the germs of not a few of the social reforms that have cropped up since Defoe's time in the shape of metropolitan improvements. The pamphlets are now but little known. They were, however, included by Sir George Cornwall Lewis in his reprint of "The Novels and Miscellaneous Works of Daniel Defoe," published at Oxford in 1841; and, as the author of "Robinson Crusoe" always called a spade a spade, even upon his title-pages, it may be as well to refer the reader who may wish to see the two title-pages at length to the eighteenth volume of that series. Of the reforms suggested in those eighty-seven pages, some, as we have said, have been carried out since Defoe's time, whilst others are still occupying the serious thoughts of persons devoted to the class of researches now generally going by the name of "The Social Science." Thus, amongst the reforms urged in the "Augusta Triumphans," that which headed the list was the establishment of a London University, "where gentlemen may have academical education under the eye of their friends;" after which came a notion of an hospital for foundlings, a scheme for an academy of sciences, and a project for the suppression of private madhouses. In his "Second Thoughts" is a scheme "to prevent street-robberies, by which our streets will be strongly guarded, and so gloriously illuminated, that any part of London will be safe and pleasant at midnight as at noon-day, and burglary totally impracticable." Among other projects in the "Augusta Triumphans," we may mention one intended "to save our lower class of people from utter ruin by preventing the immoderate use of Geneva," and one for "the clearing of our streets" from a certain class of persons whom the recent "Midnight Meetings" have sought to reclaim.

Following in De Foe's track, with or without his sagacity, what numbers of

benevolent men and women have devoted themselves to the illustration and the mitigation of the various forms of preventible suffering and evil that abound more especially in our vast metropolis! How widely spread of late days the sentiment expressed by Hood in these lines describing the poor of London!—

Masses born to drink and eat,  
But starving 'midst Whitechapel's meat  
And famishing down Cornhill!  
Through the Poultry—but still unfed—  
Christian charity, hang your head!  
Hungry—passing the street of Bread;  
Thirsty—the street of Milk;  
Ragged—beside the Ludgate Mart,  
So gorgeous, through mechanic art,  
With cotton, and wool, and silk!

And so London now abounds in societies, institutions, and organized charities, and the very suburbs are marshalled into districts wherein active official philanthropy may expatriate. But perhaps the remedy for many of the peculiar evils that baffle legislators and paralyse poor-law commissioners lies in the hands of our fair countrywomen, many of whom would faint with horror at the scenes of destitution and suffering to which every "season" they unwittingly contribute.

And, oh! those maidens young  
Who wrought in that dreary room,  
With figures drooping, and spectres thin,  
And cheeks without a bloom;  
And the voice that cried,—For the pomp of  
pride  
We haste to an early tomb.

So, evidently, thinks Miss Emma Jane Worboise, to whom we are indebted for a book which, addressing itself to the sympathies of her own sex, is fitted, we should hope, to do much good. These last lines from Hood are prefixed by her as a motto to her first chapter, and the former quotation from Hood appears as the motto to another chapter; and the two quotations indicate much of the spirit and tenor of the book. "Lottie Lonsdale; or, the Chain and its Links," is, in short, a simple story of home life and home work, in which the characters are made to illustrate the authoress's views of London miseries, and the means that women possess for helping in their cure.

One hot midsummer's day, "when everybody positively assured each other that it was really too warm to exist with anything like comfort," Lottie has accompanied her cousin, Augusta Bouverie, a bride-elect, to a most fashionable dress-making establishment, to inspect the progress of the dresses for the approaching wedding. Rose Maynard, a young girl far gone in consumption from toil and late hours, is desired to take "the skirt of an expensive gauze-like muslin" she was finishing into the show-room for Miss Bouverie to see, as that lady "had doubts about the flounces." Rose attracts the attention of Lottie, whose gentle questions elicit shocking revelations about long, weary hours of labour. From the house of the "modiste" the carriage conveys the heiress and her bridesmaid-elect to a large outfitting establishment, where Lottie's attention is again claimed by another victim of ill-paid, murderous toil. Eager to lessen the evils which her warm heart deplores, Lottie, on her return to her aunt, Mrs. Sinclair, relates the distresses to which her suffering "sisterhood" are exposed, and a resolution she has formed to ascertain more about them.

Mrs. Sinclair looked sadly perplexed. Lottie was her darling, and she could not bear to say her nay; but now she asked what it seemed almost impossible to concede—go into haunts such as she had read of, and heard of, but shrank from entering, and let Lottie, the young, innocent, guileless child-woman, breathe the polluted atmosphere, and stand face to face with thieves and fallen women, who congregate in such localities as that which she had taken down as the sempstress's address. The idea was not to be entertained. Aunt Margaret was sorely grieved; yet she must turn a deaf ear to the pleading of her darling.

There is in the story a certain Leonard Heathcote, "a distant relative of the Sinclair family," a young man of twenty-three years

of age. He is a clerk in a great mercantile house in the city; his salary seventy pounds a year. "His coat was not of the finest texture or of the newest make; his boots were better fitted to walk the streets of London than to tread the drawing-rooms of the West End; his gloves were strong and well worn; and the hat which he left in the lobby outside was decidedly rusty and shabby. . . . Nevertheless, Leonard Heathcote looked like what he was—a gentleman." All his spare time is given to the work he feels appointed for him; and many a dreary home is gladdened by his ministry to the sick and suffering. It naturally follows that the youth and Lottie learn to love each other. Other characters surround these in the story; among whom are the Miss Armishaws, ladies of position. More particularly Miss Sophy, the younger, is one of those tender-hearted maiden ladies who, with the appliances of wealth to aid them, devote the energies of middle age to the "amelioration of evils which all right-minded women perceive and deplore." This Miss Sophy's "Guild" forms one practical chapter of the book, to which attention may be turned with profit by those who would like to know what chance there is of reducing to a working system those schemes of benevolence which impassioned orators proclaim at "monster meetings," but which too often die out with the "hear, hear," of the men, and the waved handkerchiefs of merciful sisters.

Lottie's faith is tried to the uttermost when the cholera breaks out; and Leonard, to whom she is engaged, places an agonizing decision in her hands. "I remembered, Lottie, that my life was no longer at my own disposal; I could not go till I knew whether *you* bade me go, and whether *you* would heartily bid me God-speed in the terrible work to which I am called." The struggle is sharp, and the young girl is paralyzed with the terror that is gathering round her. It is Sunday evening, and the two enter the church in silence; but when they leave it the conflict is over, and she bids him "go." They walk upon the "Heath" in the warm summer night, and, as the sunlight fades away, Lottie begins at once upon the subject so near her heart. "Leonard," she said—and her voice was quite calm, and there was firm resolve in her tone—"I have decided: I cannot, will not, keep you back; God can be with you in the pestilence, even as He has been with you hitherto; He has helped me, and I can trust you to Him."

It was not till the next afternoon that Lottie dared to tell her aunt what was resolved upon concerning Leonard's visits to the infected quarter. Great was her astonishment and her dismay; and, for one so gentle, great was her indignation. She raised herself from the sofa, where she had been lying all day, and there was a flash of anger in her soft blue eyes, and there was a bitterness in her tone, that Lottie had never perceived before, as she said,—

"And you could let him go—let him risk his life; you could bid him rush to his own destruction? Lottie, you have never loved Leonard Heathcote!"

"Never loved Leonard Heathcote!" replied Lottie, repeating her aunt's words like one in a dream. "Oh, auntie, if I loved him less, I could not have told him to go."

"I do not understand such love," returned Mrs. Sinclair, coldly; "everything is changed in these days—it may be for the best, but I doubt it very much; these broad views and new lights seem to me to reverse the common order of human nature. Even love, that used to be the theme of poets and minstrels, and a dream of bliss and beauty and devotion in my young days, is changed into something dry, practical, and utilitarian."

Lottie was silent; then, seeing that her aunt looked for an answer, she said, gently, "Dear auntie, it may be so; but I don't know much about love in general; I only know about my own love—"

"And that is cold and reasoning; it is not love at all," interrupted Mrs. Sinclair, vehemently. "Lottie, when I was engaged to your uncle, nothing in the world would have tempted me to give my sanction to his incurring such fearful risk, such nearly certain death. I would have knelt; wept; entreated and, if that were unavailing, I

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would have threatened him with the loss of my regard—anything to save a life so precious."

"But aunt, dear, you let him *go to battle*. You told me yourself how, on the eve of that fearful engagement, you helped him with your own hands to put on his uniform—how you bade him go and think nothing of leaving you—and how, after the last kiss, you ran away, that he might not see your agony, and carry the remembrance with him to unnerve him in the fight."

"Yes," said Mrs. Sinclair, proudly, "I was a soldier's wife. I could not have my husband dismoured. I should have been a disgrace to his name if I had tried even by look or gesture to hold him back from his duty to his king and his country. If I had died under the dread and the separation, I would still have bade him go. But the case is different from yours: Leonard is not a soldier."

"Yes, aunt, he is a soldier," replied Lottie, firmly; "he has enlisted under the banners of the great King; God is his King, and He has called him to this work; and now, when the hottest of the battle is coming, I dare not, and will not, tempt him to sloth and cowardice. But do not tell me that I do not love Leonard."

Leonard and Lottie are at last married; and in the closing chapter we have their happy honeymoon conversations, and mutual Christian exhortations, amid the English lakes:—"And the sun went down behind the mountains, and the light faded from the purple peaks, and from the blue Windermere waters; but the sun that shone on the pathway of that wedded pair would never, never set; the light that shone in their souls would never fade; but ever grow brighter and purer, unto the perfect day—the day of eternal rest, and joy, and bliss unspeakable."

### SOCIAL LIFE IN MUNICH.

*Social Life in Munich.* By Edward Wilberforce. (W. H. Allen & Co.)

THE progress which Germany has made since 1848, in consolidating herself as a nation and effecting reforms of every kind, is much greater than superficial observers are ready to admit. The monetary conventions amongst the various states helped to establish a uniform system of currency in the greater part of the country; the extension of the customs-union, with its fixed standard of weights and measures; the abolition of passports; the new postal arrangements, by which a letter may now be sent to any part of the Confederation for 4d., and within the boundaries of the different states for about 1½d.; a complete net of railways and telegraphs, and many other useful measures, have tended in that direction; whilst the appearance of periodicals and newspapers advocating the cause of the whole of Germany rather than that of individual states, the annual meetings of the representatives of the different sciences, professions, trades, and manufactures, the frequently occurring celebrations of important national events, or the birthdays of great men—all have caused such a ferment throughout the German states, that every one feels that the temper in which great revolutions are made has very nearly been reached. It is evident that the leaders of the present movement are practical men, fully aware that a few political concessions will not cure the evil, but that a number of social and commercial reforms must be effected before there can be any change for the better. The great incubus under which the whole country suffers is the obstacles opposed to freedom of trade; and against this the first blow is to be aimed. In most of the states only the *natives* have the right, or ever obtain the concession to exercise any trade; and even the natives themselves encounter so many petty restrictions, and are subject to so many vexatious intrigues, that the most skilful workmen have no choice left, even if they have the means to set up for themselves, but either to remain journeymen all their lives or emigrate to some foreign country. There are more than 60,000 German handicraftsmen in Paris—probably double that number in London; and thousands flock every year to America and Australia, to obtain that market for their labour

which their own country absolutely denies them. In some of the states the different trades are virtually the monopoly of a few—the number of master bakers, brewers, millers, butchers, &c., for each being restricted, who, still formed into antiquated guilds, have the power to oppose any new addition to their closely-formed phalanx. Certain states have so far advanced as to admit freedom of trade within their boundaries to the natives of the soil, but they deny it to the "foreigners" from the other states. The consequence is, that a person who cannot succeed in establishing a business in his native place, or, at most, in his native state, has no alternative between emigrating beyond the boundaries of Germany, or occupying at home a subordinate position all his lifetime. All the skilful labour, is thus sent out of the country, and the formation of large towns altogether prevented. This result is exactly what the different dynasties desire to attain. If the Germans could once succeed in establishing *Freizigigkeit* throughout the Confederation—the right to settle and exercise one's calling in any place at individual discretion—people would naturally congregate where the most money was to be made, and the worst-governed states would lose a great many more inhabitants than are now annually absorbed by the other countries of Europe, America, and Australia. On this account the petty princes have thought it to be their interest to oppose tooth and nail any reform of the existing grievances; and they have closely allied themselves with the most ignorant and short-sighted of the middle-classes, in order to hold their ground against the daily increasing number of advocates of absolute freedom of trade. Fancy any court scribe defending such absurdities as the following, still existing at Munich, on the plea that the safety of the throne is intimately connected with their being upheld!

I have spoken of the annoyance of having to employ a separate workman for every branch, and I will give some details on the subject. If you have a set of double windows made, you cannot give an order to a tradesman to make them for you; you must have a carpenter to make the frames, a glazier to take them away and put in the glass, a smith to fit them in and put the hooks and eyes in their right places. You can't have your hair cut and be shaved in the same shop; the one must be done by a hairdresser, the other by a barber, and the two trades are never carried on in common. There is a story of a man who wanted a wheelbarrow and who ordered it of a carpenter. The wheelbarrow came home, but without the wheel; and the man had to carry it to a wheelwright. But the wheelwright, after putting in the wheel, could not put the iron on it; and the man had to carry it to a blacksmith. When the iron was on, the wheelbarrow still wanted painting; and the man had to take it to a painter. The same process was once gone through by an Englishman who wanted a bucket. The man who made the staves could not make the hoops; the man who made the hoops could not make the handle; the man who made the handle could not paint the bucket: so that an independent functionary had to be sought for each of these offices. Such a chain of events was surely never seen since the time of the old woman with her refractory pig. The same Englishman had an adventure with a barber which deserves to be quoted. He was in the habit of being shaved by an apprentice of a barber in his neighbourhood. One morning the apprentice informed him that another would have to shave him in future, as he was going to change masters. The Englishman, accustomed to be always shaved by this apprentice, objected to changing; but he was told that the law forbade any apprentice to take any customer away from his former master, and that, to prevent a customer being taken away, a month's time was interposed, during which the apprentice must have no dealings with the customer. I need hardly record the Englishman's indignation, his remarks that the law had no monopoly of shaving him, and his determination to break or evade the obnoxious clause. Suffice it that the apprentice continued to shave him, was informed against by his old master, and punished; and that the Englishman was told that he might be shaved by any one he liked except the one he wanted.

When such things are still possible, the reformer has all hands full, and welcomes

help from whichever side it may be tendered. As such the volume now before us will doubtless be considered in Germany, whilst, being a readable book to Englishmen, it exposes the folly of Bavarian, and especially Munich, over-legislation in a most effectual way. It will command the attention of every thinking German. Bavaria is one of the most backward states in the Confederation, and the Bavarians cannot be brought to see how far they are behind the age as long as the government encourages their conceit by making them believe that they are the leading people of the Continent, and Munich what Athens was during the pinnacle of its greatness. To a traveller who does not look beyond the surface of things, nothing can be more pleasing than the first impression of Munich, with its noble pictures and sculpture galleries, its fine specimens of nearly every style of architecture, and its public monuments. But Mr. Wilberforce has convincingly shown that a small country like Bavaria, so far behind in works of the commonest practical usefulness, had no right to spend millions in ornamenting the capital with works of art such as even the most wealthy nations can scarcely afford. We also agree with him in thinking that, in the public library, the theatre, railway stations, museums, &c., there is a total absence of any connexion between beauty and utility—plenty of outward show, but no comfort. The public library we enter by a magnificent staircase, only to find a most dingy, small, and ill-contrived reading-room, without any catalogue to consult. The railway-station boasts of fine frescoes, representing allegorically the power of steam and electricity, but is without those comforts which passengers might reasonably expect. Fine long streets have been built, containing elegant and large houses; but one of the primary conditions of all streets deserving the name has been forgotten—the pavement is either entirely wanting, and violent dust or inextricable mud is the consequence, or it is so execrable that it is a perfect punishment to walk upon it.

The object of the ex-King Ludwig, in making Munich what it is, mainly was to dazzle, and to give both his subjects and foreigners a much greater idea of Bavaria than the facts of the case justified. Bavaria, like Caesar, is ambitious, and aspires to the distinction of being considered a great power. In Germany she is laughed at outright, and tries to disguise her aim as much as possible. She has once supplied Germany with emperors; why should she not do so again? Offer her the Imperial crown, and she would not imitate Prussia in rejecting it. During the last twelve years, three members of her reigning family have been driven from power—King Ludwig, King Otho of Greece, and the Queen of Naples; and yet so firm is the belief of this dynasty in the blessing they are able to confer upon nations by governing them, that they still agitate for a re-establishment and an extension of power.

It can, however, not be said that ex-King Ludwig's object in making Munich a show-place has solely been the one we have indicated. He had, and has, without doubt, a genuine appreciation of art. He loves pictures, statuary, and fine buildings, and is not without poetic feeling, though he is a shocking verse-maker. His poems have been translated even into other languages, though the native critics maintain that by right they ought first to have been translated into good German. His son, the present king, seems to care more for literature than art, and has called around him a number of eminent literati and poets, who receive an annual stipend for taking up their residence at Munich, and are allowed to write what their inclination dictates. They meet about once a week at the king's residence, and there converse and read in a rather free-and-easy style. Mr. Wilberforce, whose interesting volume embraces nearly the whole range of Munich life—political, social, and artistic—has hardly anything to say about either the literati or the men of science,

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and mentions of the latter only Liebig, who, he says, is more appreciated in England than in Bavaria. Our author has a great deal to tell about the artists and the artistic life; and, whilst freely censuring the crotchets of others, he displays a great number of them himself. He is rather hard upon the Munichers for not showing a predilection for Italian music. More than once he pitied their taste for not liking Verdi, and fancies that somehow or other the last Italian disturbance has something to do with that fact. The Munich public, we may add, is not singular in the low estimation in which they hold Verdi—the feeling is common throughout Germany, and existed long before a Bavarian princess was driven from the throne of the two Sicilies. "La Traviata" is simply considered too indecent in plot to be acted—as all Italian operas are in Germany—in the vernacular. Most of the great singers have positively refused to take upon themselves the leading part of that opera. We were present in a northern capital when "Rigoletto" was hissed off the stage, and the curtain had to come down in the middle of the second act, not to rise again that evening. That Mendelssohn is not more appreciated in a country which has produced the greatest composers is more difficult to explain. We have observed the fact ourselves, and have heard Germans wonder at the great popularity he enjoys in England. They say that Mendelssohn's music leaves them cold and untouched. We don't know what to say to Mr. Wilberforce's denunciations of the plays of Schiller and Goethe. "German pieces," he writes, "give a great temptation to ranting; and Schiller's admirers must admit that, in most of his plays—'Tell' always excepted—the players need not supply the rant themselves." How far Schiller's admirers are inclined to admit this assertion, we need not stop to discuss. "The idea of 'Faust' being acted," he writes in another place, "would never occur to any but Germans, unless the essential parts of 'Faust' were taken away, and the hero simplified by being made merely a seducer." What would the author make of "Manfred," now acting every night at Drury Lane before crowded houses?

The volume before us is so suggestive that we would gladly linger over its pages if space permitted; but we must hasten on. Here is a sketch of Kaulbach's great cartoon representing the period of the Reformation:

In the centre, the figure from and to which everything radiates, Luther holding up the open Bible at the stretch of his arms; on each side of him the work and teaching of Protestantism proceed, communion is given in both kinds, and the Word is expounded. Below, in the foreground, are two groups, the left-hand representing Science, the right-hand group Letters. Between them reclines Hans Sachs, the cobbler poet, counting the feet of his verses on his fingers, and reminding us rather too much of the Diogenes in Raphael's school of Athens by his attitude and posture. The literary group contains Shakspeare, Cervantes, Petrarch, Erasmus, Ulrich von Hutten, Pico di Mirandola: the scientific group, Columbus, Bacon, Vesalius, Harvey. On the steps, above these groups, we see Queen Elizabeth, Gustavus Adolphus, the warriors and statesmen of the time. But to me the interest is chiefly divided between the two groups in the foreground, which were more advanced when I saw the cartoon, and which suggest much matter for discussion. The power and majesty of the figures and faces contained in these groups can hardly be overpraised. The representation of Columbus is truly stupendous. He stands like a pillar of the world, towering far above all who surround him, in a posture of self-sustained majesty, his hand resting on that part of the globe he has rescued from nothingness, though his wrists are fettered. But the grandeur of his look is beyond even that of his posture. His forehead rises in a mass of power, transcending in height and in command the greatest foreheads we know, and there is a look of resolution stamped in every line and feature. I know not if any authentic portrait exists from which this idea is taken, or if the painter has improved on his model. But, be the representation authentic or purely imaginary, there can be no doubt of its grandeur.

The novelty Kaulbach has introduced into his portrait of Shakspeare is enough to petrify the commentators. The general expression of the face is preserved, but not one feature is the same as we are accustomed to see it. The shortness of Shakspeare's nose and the length of his upper lip have always been obnoxious to the advocates of a science of physiognomy, except to those mistaken few who raise blemishes to the rank of beauties. Kaulbach has endeavoured to reconcile Shakspeare's physiognomy with his genius. The upper lip is very much shortened, and the nose is lengthened; the forehead preserves its height, but takes quite a new form; a fire and animation are given to the face which are altogether wanting in the Stratford bust and the early portraits. Kaulbach flatly refuses to accept the Stratford bust as a correct representation of Shakspeare; he denies that King Lear could have come from such a face, and argues that it is his duty to convey the genius of the poet in reproducing his features. The result is that we have here such a Shakspeare as we could wish to have, a study for genius and animation, the fire of his mind bursting out at every pore, in the firm grip of the clenched hand and the firm set of the under thigh. Humanity generally will feel flattered by the portrait; but what will the commentators say? The question of long upper lips has more than once been debated, and some consider them a necessary accompaniment of genius. Carlyle has spoken in favour of them in one of his Essays as being a sign of power, and his own portrait is a more important testimony. A writer in the *Cornhill Magazine* goes further, and assigns them to all men of genius, which can be proved to be an exaggeration. In great speakers length of upper lip would doubtless be indispensable, because without speech the oratorical faculty is incomplete. But in poets and artists there is no such need, and the long lip is not found in them generally. Kaulbach urges that the forehead is the seat of intellectual power, and that the possession of it is not affected by the lips. Be the question as it may, the departure from the traditional portrait is rather bold, and sticklers for Shakspeare are scarcely likely to pardon it.

"Social Life in Munich" is entirely free from the scandalous anecdotes by which town travels are so often disfigured. Written throughout in a pleasing, lively strain, it is evidently the work of a keen observer, who benefits the Germans whilst he amuses his own countrymen.

### "LE CAPITAINE FRACASSE."

*Le Capitaine Fracasse.* Par Théophile Gautier. Two Volumes. (Paris: Charpentier.)

THIS book, as the author informs us, was announced thirty years ago! A long time has elapsed between the promise and its fulfilment; but it was no fault of the author. The publisher had found a cunning device for increasing the sale of his books—that of tantalizing the imaginations of the readers by the most extravagant and astonishing titles for works which were to be written by the successful authors of the day; and those unlucky authors were afterwards requested to rack their brains, and prepare subjects to fit the titles. We don't know whether it is a new dodge discovered by M. Charpentier, the publisher of the present book, to date "Le Capitaine Fracasse" 1864, and whether he hopes that the poor *provinciaux*, to whom it will be offered next year, will buy it eagerly as a novelty.

"Le Capitaine Fracasse" is an attempt to revive the customs, dress, and adventures of people living under Louis XIII. It is no doubt a study; and we find the book full of minute descriptions of old ruined castles, princely houses, inns, hotels, lords, ladies, miscreants, *bohémians*, murderers, and what not. Those descriptions are probably right, as far as words go; but the present writer, though French both by birth and education, and therefore not unfamiliar with the French language, has been obliged to consult a dictionary from time to time whilst reading them, and sometimes without success. We take the hard words on trust, however, supposing that they were put in to produce a deeper local colour. Some of the words which express the most, in the opinion of admirers of the old French language, are rather revolting to us, and remind one of

Rabelais—such are "entripaille comme il faut," or "s'esclaffaient de rire."

Plenty of long rapiers, velvet breeches of all hues, satin doublets adorned with ribbons, stiff farthingales, and dark masks are to be found as we read on; and all those articles play conspicuous parts in duels, elopements, mysterious appointments, treacherous attacks, and the like. But, as to characters, where are they to be found? There are lots of puppets, perfectly dressed in the style of the time, and, by the way, changing frequently their costly dresses, and made to talk in a certain measure according to the old custom, the backgrounds and accessories to match; but all those things, put together in a skilful way, are not enough to satisfy us: we want hearts under the doublets, brains under the hoods, and a thing most difficult of all, or rather impossible—the spirit of the time. We consider as hopeless those attempts at reviving a time long gone by; and, if the number of adventures may for some readers compensate the absence of an intellectual element, we do not share their taste. Here we have a celebrated author, who, with all his talent, with all the brilliancy of his style and considerable power of imagination, has been unable to produce an interesting book. We are too *blasé* to take a very lively interest in half-a-dozen duels fought by Capitaine Fracasse, when we are told that he was "la plus fine lame du temps," or to believe in such wonderful agility as that of Chiquita, the *bohémien* girl, who can pass through an *ail-de-bœuf*, run, or rather fly, out of a castle window with a rope and a hook that she flings in the boughs of a tree, and for whom no obstacle exists.

We shall give a rapid sketch of the plot, leaving out most of the incidents.

Le Baron de Sigognac is a poor, young, handsome nobleman, who lives in an old castle, called by the author "Château de la Misère"; he has only an old servant, an old dog, an old cat, and an old horse;—you see that everything is in keeping. The whole household, except the horse, live upon cabbages, hard bread, and goat-cheese, and not in plenty. Nobody ever comes to the old manor; but, in a winter night, some itinerant actors and actresses knock at the door and ask for shelter; the Baron de Sigognac receives them, and at first sight falls in love with one of the actresses, a modest and pretty-looking girl, called Isabelle, who is as virtuous and proud as any princess in the land. This makes the poor baron follow the actors; and, as one of them dies in a cold night, the Baron de Sigognac takes his place, learns his parts, unwilling to live upon the actors' money without doing anything, and from that time is called "Capitaine Fracasse."

After innumerable adventures the actors arrive at Poitiers, where a Duc de Pallombreuse falls in love with Isabelle, but a love such as was felt in those days—a love which no coldness could quench, no obstacles arrest! The duke, as he tells his lady-love, would conquer thrones and fetch stars, if she ordered him! But the cold beauty does not order anything—she merely begs the young duke to leave her alone; and, as usual, the lover is ready to do anything—anything *else* than that; and one night, as Isabelle is dressing herself for the play, the infatuated duke ventures to stick a decorative little patch on her breast, but he is stopped by Captain Fracasse, who proposes a duel. The duke haughtily declines to have anything to do with an actor, and sends four valets, armed with sticks, to wait for Captain Fracasse, and punish him; but, of course, he remains master of the field (which was a street); and, as he is known to a Marquis de Bruyères, he sends him to the Duc de Pallombreuse, to make a duel possible by swearing upon his honour that le Capitaine Fracasse is a nobleman of pure blood and ancient race. The duel takes place, and, of course, Pallombreuse is wounded.

The actors go to Paris, and the duke, as soon as he is well enough, tries all manner

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of seductions upon Isabelle, and always fails; on the other hand, he spends fabulous sums of money to have Capitaine Fracasse murdered; but what are two or three murderers for such a man? The most accomplished of these, Lampourde, devotes himself to Capitaine Fracasse, out of admiration for a better fencer than himself, and who has been generous enough to spare his life.

Pallombreuse, who really has no luck, tries another plan. The actors are requested by a nobleman to go to his castle, and he sends a footman to show them the way. As it is very cold, Isabelle and Sigognac are walking together, when they see an old beggar on the road-side; the baron comes nearer the old man, to give him alms, and is immediately thrown down and covered with a heavy blanket, of which he cannot get rid; and, whilst he is struggling, the old man, suddenly become very strong, carries away Isabelle to a cavalier on horseback, who runs away with her. In spite of her cries, she is carried to an old castle, where Pallombreuse, in all sorts of magnificent costumes, pays his court to her—now throwing himself on his knees and bringing flowers with diamond bracelets round the stems, and sometimes menacing to detain her until she loves him; but Isabelle answers that she loves Sigognac, and always shall. There is a most useful Chiquita, a *bohémien* girl—to whom Isabelle had once given a necklace of false pearls—who has once saved Isabelle from being carried away, and who offers to go and tell Capitaine Fracasse where his lady-love is detained. She runs to Paris and comes back upon Sigognac's horse in a night, and is ready again to act when wanted.

The day after, Capitaine Fracasse and his friends try to scale the castle upon a tree that they cut, and which serves them as a bridge to get from the outside to the window of Isabelle's room. They get in *à propos* (not for Pallombreuse), and another terrific fight takes place. Isabelle is carried out of the room by the duke; but she has got a knife, and we hope that she may defend herself with it, in spite of her clumsiness, for she has tried it once without success.

When Sigognac has conquered all his assailants, he tries to break open the door which separates him from Isabelle; but here even *his* strength fails. Luckily, Chiquita opens the door for him; and then, of course, the most dreadful of all the fights in the book begins. Isabelle faints, Pallombreuse is slightly wounded; and he has an idea which, for coming late, is not the less excellent—he whistles, and his servants arrive (most stylish servants, to hear such a noise and remain invisible, whilst a simple whistle makes them appear). The duke orders them to carry away Isabelle, and they obey. Le Capitaine Fracasse, maddened by grief, sends his sword through the upper part of the duke's lungs. The combat is at an end: for a *Deus ex machinâ*, in the shape of "Le Prince," father of the duke, in taking Isabelle's hand, discovers by an amethyst ring that she is his daughter!—a most agreeable discovery, which makes all the end run smoothly; for, of course, the brother, when he is cured, ceases to be in love with his sister, and Isabelle is recognised as noble, and changed into the wealthy "Comtesse de Lineul," just in time to become a wife for le Baron de Sigognac.

There are a great many characters whose names we have not mentioned; they are generally amusing in their way, although but feebly connected with the story; they serve as a pretext for some descriptions. There is also a Zerbine, an actress who occupies an important place in the book as an accessory; but to her, and to the part she plays, we would rather make our allusions as short as possible, having very little admiration for such pictures.

After reading these two volumes, we wonder whether there are people who can believe in the existence of such a man as Pallombreuse, who thinks about nothing but laying traps and making plots to seduce a girl who hates

him, and who all at once is changed into a sort of protecting angel.

All the adventures of the book put together cannot enliven it enough to make it interesting, for we have never seen, and cannot fancy people living in that way, thinking in that way—or, rather, not thinking at all.

Théophile Gautier, it is said, has a wonderful style. This may be true, if we are to understand that his style is astonishing. It is so at first. The facility, brilliancy, and quantity of images surprise the reader and dazzle him; but, if he remembers some of these images, he will soon observe that the imagination of the writer is less rich than he thought it at first, for in similar circumstances similar images recur. Is it that the author's imagination, in spite of himself, when carried to certain objects, is at the same time carried to images so frequently connected together? Sometimes a sound or a perfume carries us to long forgotten places, and makes them vivid; could not a poetical imagination act under the same law? We are trying to find a sort of excuse for those repetitions which strike the reader; for instance, when Théophile Gautier talks about candles which have burnt without being snuffed, he will repeat almost every time, "des chandelles balançant de *larges champignons noirs*." If he talks about an expression of astonishment on a man's face, he will say, "il ouvrira la bouche *en forme d'O*." If he describes the marks left by damp upon a wall, a paper, or a ceiling, it will be, "le suintement de la pluie avait géographié des *îles ou des continents inconnus*;" and so on. There are also some favourite words which come very frequently. Such are, in "Le Capitaine Fracasse," *famélique* and *faméliquement*, *asthmatique* and *asthmatiquement*. The cat, the horse, the actors, &c., eat *faméliquement*; the soup and a cricket sing *asthmatiquement*; the horse greets his master with a "*hennissement asthmatique*;" and so on.

Nevertheless, and in spite of this criticism, we admire Théophile Gautier's wit; some of his images are ingenious—and we remember, amongst others, two very good ones, which deserve to be quoted. The first is about a tapestry: "Les lés," says the author, "ne tenaient plus que par quelques fils, et la force de l'habitude." In another place, it is about a worn-out sleeve, whose "couture riait en écartant les livres et montrant ses dents de fil blanc." This kind of wit, however, is not new to English readers. They have had enough of it, and to spare, in Dickens.

E. H.

### MRS. RAMSAY'S TRANSLATION OF DANTE.

*Dante's Divina Commedia.* Translated into English, in the metre and triple rhyme of the original, with Notes, by Mrs. Ramsay. *Inferno, Purgatorio, and Paradiso.* (Tinsley Brothers.)

"O ye who in a little bark would fain  
List to my words, and pass the surges o'er,  
Behind my ship that, singing, ploughs the main,  
Turn ye again to look upon the shore;  
Seek not the ocean; for it well may be,  
Losing my track, ye err in peril sore."

THUS the poet. And, had the warning been studied, we had seen fewer bad translations of his immortal work. But the spirit in which Mrs. Ramsay began, and has carried on the translation just completed by the appearance of the "Paradiso," is one which needed not the application of cautionary words, or inspired any doubt in the minds of Dantean scholars. And, now that the work is ended, we may truly reckon its accomplished authoress with

"The other few, who for the angel's bread  
Have early stretched their hands;"  
and to whom Dante has promised safety, as

"Ye trace  
My course along the waves which swiftly speed."

It is scarcely possible to imagine a translation in nearer accordance with the original. Indeed, the sole defect, in English ears, which we see in it—that of an occasional harshness and apparently unnecessary terse-

ness—is caused by a rigid adherence to the text, and consequent sacrifice of ornament, which a less-cultivated mind would hardly have relinquished. Fifteen years spent among the scenes where Dante lived and wrote, "beneath the shadow of the Tuscan Hills, on the shores of the Bay of Naples, and among the ruins of Rome," with the single object of studying the associations of the great poet, are no inconsiderable tribute of time to an investigation noble in itself, and ennobling the student; yet this was ungrudgingly given by Mrs. Ramsay, and how well employed let the fulness and value of some 200 pages of notes witness. From first to last the translation is characterized by an even beauty of rhyme, the metre being the triple rhymes of the original. It is something, after all, to read the soul of Dante through the medium of honest and faithful Saxon. One becomes more impressed with the large and wonderful humanity of his nature, the strong well-springs of affection within, the deep allegories which enshrine the holy thoughts, not in simple parables, but lying, each deeper than its fellow, beneath the face of the smooth-gliding thought; and the mystical meanings, true, no doubt, in a broad sense, though, "to a certain extent, doubtful in their details," by which we recognise the guidance of Reason in the companionship of Virgil through the "Inferno," and the presence of Divine Theology gleaming in the "lovely radiance" of his gentler guide.

The love of Dante for Beatrice, his love of all things good for her sake, and even the degradation which fell on him when he gave way to evil, drawing upon himself the tender rebuke of his nearest friend, Guido Cavalcanti, and the words of noble reproach which mingle with the greeting of Beatrice when they meet in Eden, fill up the measure of his great humanity, and seem to draw all minds nearer to the vast treasures contained in his.

The notes, which testify to the industry of Mrs. Ramsay, are, in many instances, of considerable value in elucidating the dark passages in the poem, as well as rich in the social history of the poet and his many friends. In the collection of them she has had the benefit of the advice of the best Italian students of Dante. A memoir of Dante might, we think, have been usefully appended—the translation being intended for general readers, who are not likely to know such matters as the origin of Dante's purpose, an episode of family history which Mrs. Ramsay puts thus clearly and well in one of her "notes":—

It was when residing with the Malaspina (in their territory of the Lunigiana) that Dante first began in earnest to write the Divine Comedy. Many years before, in his first sorrow at the death of Beatrice, he had resolved to write of her "that which had never yet been written of any woman;" and well did he keep his vow. But, in his day, the *Vulgar Poesy*, as it was termed, was considered to be a trivial thing, only fit for love sonnets and songs. So he began his great work in Latin, and finished seven cantos. Then came the toils of active life, affairs of state, embassies to Rome and Naples; during which, however, he stored up many a curious fact, many a lovely image, all to reappear in his poem. Next came the troubles of Florence, and at last, exile. And the seven cantos were left, forgotten, in an old chest of drawers. Some years after, his wife, Gemma Donati, found the manuscript, and sent it to the Lunigiana, where Dante had taken refuge. Being counselled by Malaspina to go on with the poem, he attempted to do so in Latin, but was soon convinced, to use his own words, "that many things which he wished to say could not be said save in rhyme." And so he began it once more in *vulgar rhyme*, as it was then called.

It is difficult, amid general excellence, to choose any passage which shall tell of the careful and graceful rendering of the text. Perhaps one of the best given cantos is that which certainly ranks amongst the noblest written by the poet—the one describing the closing scene in the "Paradiso," in which the

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human strength of Dante fails before the unveiled glory of God.

O highest Light! whose purity bereaves  
Of power all mortal vision, to my mind  
Give back a ray of what it there receives,  
And grant my speech such wondrous power to  
find,

That of Thy Glory I one spark alone  
May leave to future races of mankind:

For, could I bring again the memories gone,  
And somewhat sing of them in this my strain,  
More of thy victory on earth were known.

O ample grace  
Whence I presumed to lift my glance on high  
Unto that glory's fierce and burning blaze!

And, in its far and holy depths, mine eye  
Saw, bound with love as in one volume fair,  
All that within the universe doth lie:

Substance, and accident; the things they bear,  
Thereto pertaining, closely join'd I saw,  
Thus but one simple light. The germ was there

Of the great universal type and law,  
Methinks; because when this I do recall  
I seem a fuller, freer breath to draw.

But, weary, now my mortal pinions fell;  
I do but know there flash'd a 'wilderling light  
O'er me, of perfect joy made visible.

At this high glory fail'd mine earthly might;  
But yet no discontent my bliss did mar,  
Impell'd, as speeds a circling wheel aright,  
Even by the love which moves the sun and every  
star.

We believe that the existence of a Telugu work, similar in design to the "Inferno," has been unnoticed in Dantean literature. A copy is described (*Madras Journal of Literature and Science*, 1840, p. 107) as occurring among the Mackenzie MSS. in the library of the Madras College. The story relates the visit of Sananda to Yama-puri, the hell of souls, in the company of certain rishis (dervishes.) He there saw all the tortures suffered by Pāpātmalu, or wicked souls, and was greatly affected thereby. Moved by fear and compassion, he uttered aloud everywhere throughout that doleful region the Saiva five-lettered formulæ, "Nama Sivayi" the hearing of which led to its repetition by the whole of the sufferers; whereupon, by the potency of the charm, they were all delivered from their state of peril, and translated to Cailasa, the paradise of Siva. It is very unlikely that any copy of this work was known to Dante, but a careful comparison of it with the text of the "Inferno" may lead to some curious results.

G. E. R.

### TWISS'S LAW OF NATIONS.

*The Law of Nations considered as Independent Political Communities.* Vol. 2. On the Rights and Duties of Nations in Time of War. By Travers Twiss, D.C.L., Q.C., Regius Professor of Civil Law in the University of Oxford. (Longman & Co.)

BENTHAM said that Blackstone's abuse of the particles *for*, *because*, and *since* had put him out of conceit with them. A similar confusion between the reasons or efficient causes why any rule *is* law, and the reasons or final causes why the respective writer thinks the same or any other rule *ought to be* law, has long afflicted international jurisprudence. Indeed, the plague in question has raged with greater severity in this branch than in municipal jurisprudence, because the consent of nations, which is the law-making power in the former, is less apparent than the decisions of judges and the votes of Parliament, which are the law-making powers in the latter. Of late years, however, there has been a decided improvement. The nineteenth century is out-growing the puerility of for ever pitting the *for*, *because*, and *since* of Bynkershoek and Lord Stowell on the belligerent side, against the *for*, *because*, and *since* of Hübner and Hauteville on the neutral side. We may admit that a state is not free to abandon such principles as those of the rights of embassy or of the title to national territory, which have been handed down from the law of Rome, or from some other source still more ancient and general, and which therefore belong to the common inheritance with which all modern sovereignties

came clothed into being. But well-informed men now know that the laws of naval war have been the subject of continual dispute during the few centuries which have elapsed since the seas have been ridden by royal navies, and have ceased to be the theatre of nearly unrestrained violence. No nation can therefore be called on to submit to anything on the high seas except what she has herself done to others in her turn, or what she has put herself by treaty under an engagement to endure. A wise writer on maritime law will collect and arrange these *argumenta ad gentes*; and, when he finds any point settled by the universal agreement of nations, he will abstain from confusing so valuable a result, in his own mind and that of his readers, with the arguments by which he may think it possible to justify it. There remains for the reason as wide a field as she can desire, in tracing the respective consequences and merits of the different rules adopted or proposed; and this task will be all the better performed the more clearly the writer keeps in view the distinction between such an exercise of the reason, whether by himself or by his honoured predecessors, and the business of making maritime law.

Dr. Twiss is remarkably free from the old confusion between the law and the possible motives for it. This arises from two causes, of which one—namely the historical tendency of his mind—is highly creditable to him. A glance will show how favourably his references contrast with the hackneyed circle of quotations on the subject. And, on further examination, we are glad to be able to point to his chapter on Contraband, in which this merit is particularly apparent, as the best existing compendium from which the general reader may learn the history of opinion and practice on that head, the conflicting claims which have marked it from the beginning, and the engagements and precedents by which this country, at least, is now bound with respect to it. The chapter on Blockade is not equal to that on Contraband as an historical monograph, either in fulness or in accuracy—a result, perhaps, due to the extremity of Dr. Twiss's opinions on the subject, which will presently appear.

The second cause which has relieved Dr. Twiss's volume from an excessive parade of reasons, is the uncompromising manner in which he espouses the cause of belligerent rights. The cardinal question to which everything in the laws of maritime war returns is, of course, "What ought any nation to submit to when neutral?" Most writers see great difficulty in this, considered as a moral question; so that their only chance of escaping endless intricacy and confusion is to keep the moral question of what the law ought to be well distinguished from the historical one of what it is. To Dr. Twiss, however, the question as a moral one presents no difficulty at all. Throughout the book, the principle that a belligerent suffers *injuria* from a neutral whenever he suffers *damnum* from him, is asserted with an unusual frankness, which will, at least, win for our author the respect of those who differ from him. Thus, we find, at p. 140:—

In order that the navigation of the open sea by other nations at such a time [that of war] should have an innocent character, it must be so conducted as not to work any prejudice to the contention of either belligerent, as such.

And, at p. 309:—

It is obvious that the commercial adventure, if it should be successful, will influence the conduct of the war in favour of the party to whom the supplies are being carried. Such an adventure is accordingly inconsistent with neutrality.

It will be understood how, with one general *for*, *because*, and *since* of this kind underlying the whole book, an author who has faith in his principles has often permitted the history and statement to take their course, without feeling it necessary to thrust a motive or a justification into every sentence in the manner of Blackstone. The reader, however, will use his own judgment as to

how far the narrative of belligerent claims is to be taken as a magazine of precedents to prove belligerent rights.

From the interest attaching to the opinions of so eminent a publicist as Dr. Twiss, we think it worth while to note some of the instances in which his high belligerent tone is carried from generalities into particulars.

(1.) "The possible application of the rule of enemy character attaching to neutral vessels by reason of their carrying enemy's despatches, although such despatches are being carried to a neutral port in public letter-bags, under the seal of a neutral post-office, has given rise to questions which are not readily solved by reference to any previous practice amongst nations, and may require to be adjusted by negotiation, or, perhaps, by express convention." (Preface, p. xxi.)—Clearly, then, our author is not one of those who held the case of the *Trent* to be settled by the mere fact of her destination to a neutral port: and accordingly we find that, when he refers to that case (p. 39), he condemns the seizure of the envoys on a different ground.

(2.) In 1806 the British government notified a blockade of all the ports between Ostend and the mouth of the Elbe, and between Brest and the mouth of the Seine, which was not to be enforced against "neutral vessels, laden with other goods than contraband of war or enemy's property, as long as those vessels had not been laden at a port belonging to or occupied by the enemies of Great Britain, or, on the other hand, were not proceeding to such port from the blockaded line." In other words, no real blockade was established, for that term would be misplaced when neutral commerce is generally allowed to pass free; but the name of blockade was used to justify an attack on certain descriptions of neutral commerce which, by international law, could only be touched through a blockade. This proceeding Dr. Twiss relates with approval, because it did not operate unequally as between one neutral *nation* and another, wholly disregarding its inequality as between one neutral *person* and another (p. 226). Does he interpret an effective blockade as one which is equally effective or ineffective for all neutral nations? If so, the question of effective blockades will be much simplified, but in an unexpected way.

(3.) Another passage throws an equally strong light on Dr. Twiss's understanding of an effective blockade. In 1689 Great Britain and Holland notified to neutrals, in pursuance of a mutual convention, a blockade of all the coasts of France and all her colonies. On this, even *Historicus* says that, "So far from maintaining and justifying the practice, England acknowledged and made amends for the error." ("Letters on International Law," p. 114.) But our author says, "It is not surprising that Pufendorf was of opinion that this convention was justifiable, for, under the more lenient practice of the present century, a blockade of all the ports, harbours, and roadsteads of the enemy has been maintained by Great Britain against France" (p. 258). Just so: and Lord Stowell declared that it was an exceptional case, justifiable as a retaliatory measure for the Berlin and Milan decrees, "and never intended to be maintained according to the usual and regular mode of enforcing blockades." (*The Arthur*, 1 Dodson, 425.) We may remark, by the way, that Pufendorf did not so much justify the convention of 1689 as recommend the northern powers to submit to it for the sake of the Protestant and anti-Gallican cause. But a publicist of undeniable talent and rare learning, who carries belligerent rights farther than Lord Stowell and *Historicus*, cannot fail to give great satisfaction in America at the present crisis, however his doctrines may be received on this side of the Atlantic.

We have already alluded to the existence of historical errors in the chapter on Blockade, and we will conclude this notice by pointing some of them out.

(1.) "Two conditions, it will be observed, are implied by Grotius in the case as thus

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stated—namely, actual measures on the part of the belligerent to stop all supplies being furnished to his enemy, and a knowledge of that fact on the part of the neutral merchant" (p. 192).—Grotius stated a third condition, that a surrender or peace should already be expected, which became famous in the subsequent discussions on the subject.

(2.) Dr. Twiss represents the Dutch placard of 1630 as contemplating that the reputation or notoriety of the blockade, in addition to its actual existence, should be proved before the courts of admiralty (p. 195). And at p. 203 he gives a different interpretation to the same clause of the placard, making it assert that the blockade was already notorious. Each interpretation is new and unsustainable. The clause simply declares that the ports in question are deemed to be besieged—that is, declares them under blockade in the technical sense.

(3.) Dr. Twiss states that, by her convention of 1801 with Russia, Great Britain acceded (*sic*) to the definition of a blockade contained in the treaties and declarations of the armed neutrality of 1780 (p. 196). Such a statement, from Hautefeuille, would have been understood to convey the writer's opinion that the famous *or* of that convention was equivalent to *and*. From Dr. Twiss, whose opinions on the effectiveness of a blockade we have shown above, what *does* it mean?

(4.) Dr. Twiss states on p. 205 that the British courts of admiralty require "a blockade *de facto* at the time of notification, otherwise the notification will not have any legal effect." To correct this, nothing more was needed than to refer to the form of a notification—that of 1806—given by Dr. Twiss himself, at p. 223, and which bears that the considerations therein mentioned "had determined the British government to issue orders for placing in a state of blockade all the coasts, &c., and that they were accordingly to be considered as actually blockaded." It is quite impossible that such orders could always, or even generally, have received instant execution; and, on the other hand, the time which would elapse before the news of the actual presence of the blockading force could reach London would render it absurd to wait for that news before notifying neutral powers of the intention to blockade. It was, therefore, quite proper that notifications should be given in the form cited; the real grievance was that, after a notification in that form, neutral captains were not allowed to approach the spot for the purpose of enquiring whether the blockade had been established. But such was the rule; and Dr. Twiss will, we apprehend, be unable to show that, when a neutral was caught making the enquiry, and the blockade *then* existed, the British courts of admiralty ever entertained the question whether it had existed at the date of the notification.

We conclude by expressing the opinion that, on the whole, this second volume will amply sustain the reputation earned for Dr. Twiss by his former one.

J. W.

### NOTICES.

*The Martyrs and Heroes of the Scottish Covenant.* By George Gilfillan. Third Edition. (Edinburgh: Gall and Inglis; London: Houlston and Wright. Pp. 288.)—OUR author devotes an introductory chapter to the "Principles on which History should be written." This exposition is scarcely so terse as it might have been; and the good things which are in it have not been so continually before the author's eyes as one could have wished; or, in other words, Mr. Gilfillan scarcely comes up to his own high standard. He begins his story with the signing of the *National Covenant* by James VI. when he ascended the Scottish throne; and him whom George Buchanan called a "saul-less blockhead," George Gilfillan terms a "fool, pedant, despot, and learned ignoramus." He then traces the history of this covenant through the reigns of Charles I., Cromwell, Charles II., and James II., touching but very slightly on such men as the Marquis of Montrose and Archbishop Leighton, but lingering with a hearty hatred on

Claverhouse—"a bloody villain, whose crimes," he tells us, "all the waters of the Tay, or of the ocean into which it empties itself, could not wash away." With the death of "Clavers" he thinks the persecution may be said to have ended; but he closes his narrative with an account of the "Massacre of Glencoe, the barbarity of which eclipses even the cruelties of the past persecution, and dwindle Dunottar Castle itself in its flagrant circumstances." The three concluding chapters, which take up nearly half the book, Mr. Gilfillan devotes to "the character, literature, aims, and attained objects of the Covenanters," to the "treatment they received in after times," and to "deductions from their history and character." The work altogether is too sketchy, and written too much in the spirit of avowed partisanship to be of historical value; but Mr. Gilfillan is wonderfully liberal, carries on his narrative with vigour, and attains sometimes to dramatic force.

*Lucy and Christian Wainwright.* By the Author of "Aggesden Vicarage," &c. (Masters.)—THIS is a collection of tales which we think happier efforts of the author than her longer pieces. They have about them much quiet pathos of a very real kind, and much clever observation of character. "The Lost and Found," a story founded upon the single slipper found among the Franklin relics, can hardly be read without tears. "Thorns and Roses of a Humble Life" is a very touching story of a girl using her musical talents for her brother's benefit; and "Will no one do Likewise?" is a useful and interesting sketch of district-visiting in London, many of the characters being, we are assured, veritable portraits.

*Shakespeare: A Critical Biography.* By Samuel Neil, author of "The Young Debater," &c. (Houlston and Wright. Pp. 122.)—CONSIDERING the interest which attaches itself to everything connected with the name of Shakespeare, this "Opusculum," as the author calls it—"supplying a concise synopsis of the known facts of his life, arranged in strictly chronological order"—will be welcomed by any lover of the great dramatist. There are many facts and opinions here collected which will be looked for in vain in any other single work; and, so far as we have been able to discover, this biography may be regarded as quite up to the present state of our knowledge.

*International Law in connexion with Municipal Statutes.* Relating to the Commerce, Rights, and Liabilities of the Subjects of Neutral States pending Foreign War, considered with reference to the trial of the case of the *Alexandra*, &c. By F. Hargrave Hamel, of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law, &c., &c. (Butterworths. Pp. 111.)—THIS legal essay is dedicated to the author's father, "Felix John Hamel, Esq., Solicitor for Her Majesty's Customs," &c. The author seems to have consulted all the best authorities, from Grotius and Vattel down to "Phocion" and "Historicus" of the *Times*; and, although we cannot pronounce professionally upon the technical merits of the book, we argue, from Mr. Hamel's connexion with the merchant shipping department of the Board of Trade, and from the quiet judicial manner in which he advocates entire neutrality, that the book is a safe compendium of "International Law."

*Doldenhorn and Weisse Frau, ascended for the first time by Abraham Roth and Edmund von Fellenberg.* By Abraham Roth, Ph.D., Editor of the Swiss "Bund." (Coblenz: Karl Bädeker; London and Edinburgh: Williams and Norgate. Pp. 82.)—THIS book is remarkable for the clearness of its type, beauty of its paper, and handsome manner of its general getting-up. The coloured engravings, from sketches by Ph. Gosset and E. von Fellenberg, are really beautiful, and, with J. R. Stengel's coloured map, aid the narrative wonderfully. The book is one to be possessed by all Alpine climbers.

*Né Coiffé—Born to Good Luck.* By C. Dagobert. (London: Dulau; Paris: Truchy. Pp. 154.)—WITH French on one side and English on the other, the author proposes, by means of the interesting little tale before us, "to teach the whole French language." "It has been written for those who can only study by fits and starts, or whenever a moment can be snatched from business or pleasure." There is every variety of subject introduced in the tale; and, if the pupil will only follow honestly the plan proposed by M. Dagobert, he will very soon master the language.

*A Good Fight in the Battle of Life.* A Domestic Tale founded on Facts. (London: Sampson Low, Son, & Co. Pp. 351.)—THIS is a reprint from *Cassell's Family Paper*, "for the pages of which journal it was selected by the adjudicators," who ever they were, "as the successful competitor for a prize of £250." The story is of the dreary teetotal type; and, consequently, the men, women,

and children in it are either teetotal and transcendently good, or anti-teetotal and ineffably bad. The adventures of the different characters in the book are, some of them, very wonderful, and, like the characters themselves, rather unnatural. This unlikelihood of circumstances pervades the whole class of literature to which the book belongs; and, when one looks for the reason of this, he finds it in the general lack of genuine literary craft. Teetotal literature, as a literature, has yet to be created.

*Little Blue Hood.* By Thomas Miller. (Sampson Low, Son, & Co. Pp. 132.)—THOUGH much slighter and much less ambitious than the preceding, the story of "Little Blue Hood," who was stolen from her mother's carriage and detained for some years among the vilest of our London population, is, as a whole, much more complete and artistic. Some of the descriptions of low-class life are excellent, and must have been written by one tolerably familiar with the subject. The interest of the story is so well maintained that very few young folks will begin it without going on to the end.

*The Child's Scripture History*, forming a Complete and Perfect Analysis of the Holy Scriptures, in Question and Answer. (Houlston and Wright. Pp. 144.)—THE author says in his preface that "the great want hitherto has been a work that, without fatiguing the memory, is fitted to teach the great landmarks, scriptural and historical, of Holy Writ," and describes "the present work as short and simple." He seems to have performed his task with great conscientiousness; but, though the questions and answers are, for the most part, simple enough, it can scarcely be said that a book, extending to 144 pages, with some sixteen or eighteen questions to be answered in every page, is short, or capable of being retained in the memory of any but the most precocious child. Compression to a fourth of its bulk would have made the book, in our opinion, much more serviceable. It is accompanied with a rough woodcut of the "Mosque of St. Omar, built on the site of Solomon's Temple," and a very queer "Plan of Jerusalem."

*The Love of Religious Perfection; or, How to Awaken, Increase, and Preserve it in the Religious Soul.* By Father Joseph Baymon of the Society of Jesus. Translated from the Latin by a member of the same Society. (Dublin: James Duffy. Pp. 219.)—*The Spiritual Retreat of the Rev. Father Colombière of the Society of Jesus.* Translated from the French, with preface by the Right Rev. Dr. Manning. (Dublin: James Duffy. Pp. 159.)—*The Love of Jesus to Penitents.* By Henry Edward Manning, D.D. (Dublin: James Duffy. Pp. 101.)—ALL these books are characterized by the most fervid Roman Catholic piety. Protestants may be startled by the mention of "scourges and haircloths," "our Blessed Mother and the Sacred Heart;" but to all "good Catholics" the volumes will be the source of much spiritual consolation. The first and third are contemporary productions; but Father Colombière came to England in 1677, with the highest character for "winning souls to God," as preacher to her Royal Highness the Duchess of York, who was the Princess Mary of Modena. Dr. Manning's translation is idiomatic and reads smoothly, and the same may be said of the English rendering of Father Baymon's Latin.

*The Articles of the Christian Faith.* Considered in reference to the Duties and Privileges of the Members of Christ's Church Militant here on Earth. A Book of Suggestive Thought, addressed to the Earnest-minded. (Rivingtons. Pp. 139.)—THE writer's "object is to draw attention to the spiritual consolation and practical influence faith should exercise on the faithful." He addresses himself "to those who already steadfastly believe all the articles of the Christian faith, and seeks to lead them to 'furtherance and joy of faith.'" The volume is very scriptural throughout, and written in a devout spirit.

*Scripture Records of the Life and Times of Samuel the Prophet.* By the Author of "Scripture Record of the Blessed Virgin, the Mother of our Lord." (Rivingtons. Pp. 147.)—THIS modern rendering of the Sacred Record is largely interspersed with pious "reflection and application." The author, however, does not allow the homily to override the narrative, which he manages with considerable skill; and, maintaining a strictly orthodox vein throughout, he carries the interest of his readers along with him to the close of the last chapter.

*Psalms and Hymns*, compiled by the Right Rev. Thomas Baker Morrell, D.D., Coadjutor Bishop of Edinburgh, and the Rev. William Walsham How, M.A., Rector of Whittington, Shropshire. (Morgan. Pp. 180.)—THIS is an

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enlarged edition of a collection published some ten years ago, and the compilers express their indebtedness to the "Salisbury Hymnal," "Hymns Ancient and Modern," "Dr. Kennedy," "Dr. Bonar," "W. C. Dix," and "Mr. Neale for some of his valuable translations of ancient Latin and Greek Hymns." "This edition," moreover, "contains a suggestion of suitable tunes for all the psalms and hymns, the numbers of such tunes being those under which they will be found in Mr. Thorne's 'Book of Tunes.'"

*Selections in Poetry.* (Lancaster: J. and J. Barwick; London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. Pp. 176.)—THIS collection ranges from Shakespeare to Tupper, but confines itself chiefly to the effusions of our modern bards. The selection is good, but very carelessly edited. Such an error as that of attributing Addison's "Plato, thou reasonest well," to Shakespeare is unpardonable.

*The New Review* contains this month a very excellent article "On the Choice of a Profession." It points chiefly to India as a field for youth, but is written with a thorough appreciation of the difficulties of the subject. "Concerning certain Social Questions" is rambling, but at the same time racy: and we learn from the article "Mexico and the Mexicans" much that is interesting, if not exactly new. The writer of the paper on "Archbishop Whately" thinks that "the prelate has left a deep impression on the age in which he lived, and has bequeathed vast treasures of thought destined to mould the minds of future generations." The other articles are: "French Parliamentary Leaders," "The English Bar," "National Income and Expenditure," and "Felix Mendelssohn Bartoldy."

THE present number of *The Rose, Thistle, and Shamrock* commences the fourth volume; but we see nothing specially to note in the contributions of this month.—*The Christian Spectator* contains an article on "The Gospel of Rationalism," which has been called forth by Renan's "Life of Jesus." The criticism on Jean Ingelow's poems is deservedly laudatory; and the papers, "Vital Electricity" and "Man higher than Angels," are both interesting.—We have received the second number of *The Tyro*, by members of Harrow School; and we are still pleased with the variety and excellence of the contributions. The article on America is both sensible and temperate.—There are also on our table *The Journal of Health*, published by Mr. Job Caudwell, *The Progressionist* and *The Co-operator*, both published by F. Pitman.—From Mr. Blake we have *The Musical Herald*, *The Family Herald*, and one of his capital little *Family Herald Handy-Books*, entitled *How to Bake: from a Batch of Bread to a Biscuit*—a little work which all economical housewives well know how to prize.

## MEDICAL PUBLICATIONS.

*On Australasian Climates, and their Influence in the Prevention and Arrest of Pulmonary Consumption.* By S. Dougan Bird, M.D. (Longman & Co.)—A CHANGE of climate is not at present regarded as a *sine quid non* for all cases of pulmonary consumption; and it is urged that oftentimes the effects of a fatiguing voyage, of the withdrawal of home-comforts, and especially of the separation from old associations, are injurious. Dr. Bird contends, in the first place, that failure must frequently be attributed to the selection of an unsuitable climate. Consumption is attended by a cough, either dry in character, and requiring an air moist, warm, and somewhat relaxing; or loose, with more or less expectoration, and calling for a climate at once dry, warm, tonic, and stimulating. The author's plea for the Australian climate applies more particularly to the latter class of cases, which are the most common; and he examines in detail the nature of various favourite European climates, which, he maintains, do not possess the essential desiderata. By a brief and vivid description of the passage from London to Melbourne, and, in the last chapter, by a happy picture of colonial life, he seeks to dispossess his readers of the prevailing belief as to the discomforts of a sea-voyage and other imaginary drawbacks incidental to an exile from Old England. In an Appendix ample evidence of the correctness of our author's views appears in the Registrar-General's report, in which it is shown that but seven per cent. die in Victoria of consumption, while in England the mortality from the same disease is twenty in every hundred.

*Obscure Diseases of the Brain and Mind.* By Dr. Winslow. Third Edition. (Hardwicke.)—We were reminded, while reading Dr. Winslow's work, of a circumstance that annually recurred in one of the medical schools of London. A certain learned professor, after having reviewed in a most

graphic manner the various affections to which the heart is liable, was for some time afterwards much embarrassed by the anxious enquiries made by several students as to the condition of their own susceptible organs; and it was a matter of no inconsiderable difficulty to convince them that their young hearts were as healthy and honest as even the acute professor could desire. Well, fresh from Dr. Winslow's work, we find ourselves moving about amongst our companions with furtive glances, trying to discover whether they concur in our suspicions, and whether we are indeed demented. We are pleased, however, to observe the continued sale of the work, since, although the author may not very accurately distinguish between disease and that which is simply and purely natural, yet the more widely diffused is the view that many of the crimes committed are the result of a morbid action of the brain, not always to be restrained by the fear of consequences, the more philosophical will become the treatment of culprits.

*The Dictionary of Medical and Surgical Knowledge, and Complete Practical Guide in Health and Disease, for Families, Emigrants, and Colonists.* A to I. By the Editor of the "Dictionary of Useful Knowledge." (Houlston and Wright.)—THIS is a work that may prove, in the diversity of its information, useful to the medical student. Looking at it as a guide to families, we might submit that there is much matter of a technical character that could be expunged; but the author has not erred in imparting to his readers a little of that knowledge which at present is monopolized by the medical profession. By such means alone shall quackery be undermined, for the public, when enlightened, will be enabled to exert its common sense, and to judge between the true and the false. The prescriptions, though the choice selections of a long experience, are decidedly anti-homeopathic, and we think belong rather to the practice of our grandfathers.

## PUBLICATIONS OF THE WEEK.

**ATLAS ANTIQUUS.** Ten Maps of the Ancient World, for Schools and Families. By Dr. H. Kiepert. Second Edition. Fol. bds. *Williams and Norgate.* 6s.

**BAIN (Alexander).** English Grammar. 12mo., pp. xvi—219. *Longman.* 2s. 6d.

**BAUMGARTEN (M.)** Acts of the Apostles; or, the History of the Church in the Apostolic Age. Translated from the German by the Rev. A. J. W. Morrison. Three Volumes. 8vo. New Edition. Pp. 1273. Edinburgh: *Clark. Hamilton.* 27s.

**BERJEAU (J. H.)** History of the Holy Cross. Reproduced in Fac-simile from the original edition of 1843. 4to. *Williams and Norgate.* 25s.

**BICKERSTETH (Rev. E.)** Family Prayers; being a complete course for Six Weeks. With Additional Prayers. 36th Thousand. Fcap. 8vo. *Seeleys.* 3s. 6d.

**BICKERSTETH'S WORDS FOR WOMEN.** By the Author of "Woman's Service on the Lord's Day," &c., &c. New Edition. 18mo. *Seeleys.* 1s. 6d.

**BIRKS (Thomas Rawson, M.A.)** Ways of God; or, Thoughts on the Difficulties of Belief in connexion with Providence and Redemption. Cr. 8vo., pp. viii—216. *Seeleys.* 5s.

**BLAKE.** Life of William Blake, "Pictor Ignotus." With Selections from his Poems and other Writings. By the late Alexander Gilchrist. Illustrated from Blake's own Works, in Fac-simile by W. J. Linton, and in Photolithography. With a few of Blake's Original Plates. Two Volumes. Roy. 8vo., pp. xxii—657. *Macmillan.* 32s.

**BUNYAN'S PILGRIM'S PROGRESS.** With Coloured Engravings. Fcap. 8vo., pp. xi—379. *Nisbet.* 3s. 6d.

**CALENDAR OF STATE PAPERS,** Foreign Series, of the Reign of Elizabeth, 1558-9. Edited by the Rev. J. Stevenson, M.A. With Preface and General Index. Roy. 8vo., pp. 716. *Longman.* 15s.

**CAMPBELL (Major-General John, C.B.)** Personal Narrative of Thirteen Years' Service amongst the Wild Tribes of Khondistan for the Suppression of Human Sacrifice. With Illustrations and Map. 8vo., pp. ix—320. *Hurst and Blackett.* 14s.

**CAUSTON (H. Kent Staple).** Howard Papers. With a Biographical Pedigree and Criticism. 8vo., pp. 690. *Causton.* 26s.

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14 NOVEMBER, 1863.

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from the education, general and professional, they have been enabled to receive at the College, "without interference with the religious creed inherited by them from their ancestors." The same firm, a week or two ago, presented £1000 to the Hospital of the College. For several years past—from the time when, by means found or supplied by the late Earl of Auckland, Dwarkanauth Tagore, Sir Edward Ryan, and others, Dr. Goodvee brought over Sorjo Coomar Chuckerbutty (now Dr. Chuckerbutty, one of the professors of the College of Calcutta), Bholanath Bose, and two other Indian students, and provided for them a course of British Academical Education—University College, in one or other of its faculties, or in its junior department, has had a constant succession of students from the Indian Presidencies, mostly Parsees. The ability and assiduity of these young men have attracted attention; and in the College Examinations they hold their own, and sometimes more, against their European competitors.

THE Edinburgh papers have given reports of the introductory lectures of the professors of the University to their several classes at the opening of the session last week, in addition to the report of the general inaugural address of the Principal, Sir David Brewster. The reports extend over many columns. In Professor Blackie's lecture, the subject of which was "The Method of Studying Languages," he made the following remarks on the state of the study of Greek in Scotland:—"The Scottish people have for some two hundred years or more suffered themselves to be amused with the idea that Greek was effectually taught at the Universities; but experience has at length removed the mist from their eyes, and they begin to have some conception of the real state of the case. Our language classes in the College were too large, too unsifted, and too irregular in every way to perform the functions of an elementary school with any success; and the fact is that universities were never intended, and are not used in any part of Europe, except Scotland, for teaching the Greek language. The philosophy of the language and the literature of the language are the only proper subjects of academical instruction. The attempt to make the lower classes of the universities do the work of upper schools, and to lump together two institutions so essentially different as the gymnasium and the university in this country, has, as might have been predicted, resulted in complete failure. We have not made Greek scholarship by this anomalous academical system; only a few creditable scholars have made themselves accidentally." Professor Fraser's introductory lecture to his class of Logic and Metaphysics consisted of an elaborate review of Archbishop Whately's intellectual character and influence, more especially in connexion with logical science. Of Whately he said: "He took logic very much as he found it in the familiar rudiments of Aldrich, and proceeded to clothe the dry bones with flesh. The old forms of proposition and syllogism he used as a framework for the exposure of a number of current fallacies, while he enlarged on the simplicity and scientific beauty of the framework itself. In all thought and reasoning much is almost always taken for granted, and not expressed. These latest assumptions are apt to escape criticism from the reasoner himself and from others. The practical mind of Whately was alive to the great utility of the exercise of completing what thought and language usually elide, and he valued the syllogism as the instrument which compels the intellect to recognise its dogmatically assumed but improved premises. Syllogistic forms were interesting to him as a good scientific apparatus for dragging into light those specimens of verbal ambiguity, argumentative irrelevancy, and false assumption which this acute moral adversary of fallacy was so able to produce for public reprobation. But there is no mark of his hand in the revolution which has since been going on in the scientific framework itself, on which he was accustomed to exhibit his fallacies. By the qualities of his mind which I have touched, he, as it were, secured the public ear for logic, leaving it to others to address to that ear logical discussions and speculations from which he himself instinctively turned aside. The student of logical science, as evolved in the compendium of Whately, accordingly finds himself in a new world when he sees around him the logical speculations or the discoveries of Hamilton and Mansel and De Morgan, or of Mill and Whewell." The Mathematical Professor, Mr. Kelland, in announcing an extra course of lectures this session on the new doctrine of Quaternions, said:—"The subject of Quaternions promises shortly to become one of the chief handmaids of Natural Philosophy."

## MISCELLANEA.

MR. SALA leaves London to-day on his way to America, where he is to act, we believe, for some time, as the correspondent of the *Daily Telegraph*, and doubtless also to gather matter to be used hereafter in many ways by his literary faculty.

A DONATION of £3000 has just been made to the funds of University College, London, by the Parsee firm of Cama & Co., of Bombay and London, in testimony of their sense of the advantages which many natives of India have derived

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The geometry of Descartes enabled ordinary men to do what the simple geometry of Newton was powerless to effect, except in the hands of a giant like Newton. But who that has studied the geometry of Newton and the co-ordinate analysis of Descartes has not felt the power and surpassing beauty of the former? Now, this new science of Quaternions promises to confer on the geometry of Descartes much of the simplicity and expressiveness of the old geometry. In its brevity, in the fact that every step tells its own tale, it seems to relieve that geometry from the charge of being conversant rather with number than with space. At any rate, the doctrine of Quaternions is a long stride forward, and leads to a land of promise." From Professor Tait's lecture to his Natural Philosophy class on "The One Great Law of Natural Philosophy," the following is a passage:—"What is the ultimate form which all the energy in the universe will assume? and what was, probably, its original created form? To the first of these a definite answer can be given, chiefly due to the investigations of Carnot and Thomson. (1.) All energy tends to become heat. (2.) Heat tends to a state of uniform diffusion. (3.) Uniformly diffused heat cannot be transformed into any other form of energy. To the second question the probable answer is that the original energy of the universe was potential, consisting in the distribution of matter through space. As the various masses fell together under their mutual attraction, suns and planets were formed, generally in a state of incandescence; the smaller bodies have cooled down faster than the larger, by radiation into space; but the process of dissipation still goes on, and will continue till all the matter in the universe is collected into one quiescent mass, uniformly hot, whose energy is incapable of further transformation without a new exertion of creative power."

M. NADAR'S Giant Balloon will continue to be exhibited for a few days in the centre transept of the Crystal Palace; but, as this vast aerial machine exceeds in height the great transept of the Palace, the *nacelle* (or car) cannot be placed in its proper position beneath the balloon, but is exhibited detached from it on a raised platform. The balloon is inflated with atmospheric air, and partly suspended from the roof of the transept. The Palace is lighted up each evening till 7 o'clock; and arrangements have been made by which trains from the North London Railway at Bow and intermediate stations run direct to the Palace, tickets including admission to the Palace being issued by the Railway Company.

THE Bishop of Natal's work on the Pentateuch has given occasion to a most important movement for the vindication of the accuracy of the Old and New Testaments, which has been undertaken on the suggestion of the Speaker of the House of Commons. The plan having received the approbation of the Archbishop of Canterbury, a committee has been formed to carry it out, consisting of the Archbishop of York, the Bishops of London, Lichfield, Llandaff, and Gloucester, Lord Lyttelton, the Speaker, Dr. Jacobson, Dr. Jeremie, and Mr. S. H. Walpole. It is proposed that an elaborate work in refutation of recent objections shall be prepared, under the editorial care of the Rev. Frederick C. Cook, preacher of Lincoln's Inn, and issued in eight divisions. The Pentateuch is to be edited by Professor E. Harold Browne, assisted by the Rev. R. C. Pascoe, the Rev. T. E. Espin, the Rev. T. F. Thrupp, and the Rev. W. Dewhurst. The Historical books will be confided to the Rev. Professor Rawlinson, as editor, assisted by Lord Arthur Hervey, Archdeacon of Sudbury, and the Rev. T. E. Espin. The Rev. Prebendarian Cook, with the assistance of Professor E. H. Plumptre, the Rev. W. T. Bullock, and the Rev. T. Kingsbury, will edit the Poetical books. Dr. McCaul, Professor of Divinity in King's College, London, will undertake the editorship of "The Four Great Prophets," assisted by the Rev. R. Payne Smith, and the Rev. H. J. Rose. The "Twelve Minor Prophets" will be undertaken by the Bishop of St. David's, assisted by the Rev. Robert Gandell. To this work the Rev. Edgar Huxtable, the Rev. William Drake, and the Rev. Frederick Meyrick will also contribute. The Gospels of St. Matthew, St. Mark, and St. Luke will be edited by the Rev. Professor Mansel; St. John's Gospel, by the Dean of Canterbury; and the Acts of the Apostles, by the Rev. Dr. Jacobson. The editorship of St. Paul's Epistles has been assigned to the Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol and the Rev. Dr. Jeremie, who will be assisted by Professor J. B. Lightfoot, Professor T. Evans, and the Rev. J. Waite. The rest of the sacred canons has been assigned to Dr. Trench, the new Archbishop

of Dublin, and the Rev. Dr. Robert Scott, Master of Balliol College, Oxford.

MESSRS. CHURCHILL AND SONS have issued their preliminary notice of a new scientific periodical, *The Quarterly Journal of Science*, the first number of which is to appear on the 1st of January next. The editors are Mr. James Samuelson and Mr. William Crookes; and in the list of contributors, which is published on the second page of our present number, are included the names of many of the chief scientific men of Great Britain and Ireland, and of some of the most eminent of France—so that it cannot fail to fill up a void that has long been felt in scientific circles.

MESSRS. BELL AND DALDY have just published Mr. Hilton's "Lectures on the Influence of Mechanical and Physiological Rest in the treatment of accidents and surgical diseases, and the diagnostic value of pain," which were delivered before the Royal College of Surgeons. They announce an important work as near its completion, and to be published in December: "Jerusalem Explored: being a Description of the Ancient and Modern City," with upwards of one hundred illustrations, views, ground-plans, and sections, by Dr. Ermete Pierotti, Architect-Engineer to Sooraya Pacha of Jerusalem. The work will form two volumes in imperial quarto.

MESSRS. BACON & CO. have just issued two capital low-priced maps—1. "A Political and Commercial Map of Europe, showing the railways, submarine telegraphs, latest political boundaries, &c., also tables of population, area, reigning monarch, form of government, religion, revenue, expenditure, and public debt of each of the European states;" and 2. "A Railway and Commercial Map of England and Wales, based on the Ordnance Survey,"—both, from price and size, well suited for the counting-house.

MESSRS. TRÜBNER & CO. have published "Lectures on Biblical Temperance, by E. Nott," with an Introduction by T. Lewis, and "Methods of Study in Natural History," by Agassiz. Other recent American publications are: "The Life of Philidor, Musician and Chess-player," by George Allen; the first volume of a "Manual of Spherical and Practical Astronomy, by W. Chauvenet;" a "Treatise on the Colouring Matters derived from Coal Tar, by H. Dussance;" an account of "The Siege of Richmond, by J. Cook;" Mr. G. W. Cullam's "System of Military Bridges in Use by the United States' Army;" and two new novels, "Broken Columns," and "Shoulder Straps, a Novel of New York," by H. Morford.

MESSRS. SOTHEBY AND WILKINSON commence the season on Monday next with the sale of the library of the late Dr. Russell, Head Master of the Charter House from 1811 to 1832, whence he retired to the rectory of St. Botolph's, Bishopsgate, occupying much of his leisure, up to 1850, in editing Casaubon's Diary, which he published under the title of "Isaaci Casauboni Ephemerides; cum Notis et Praefatione J. Russell, S.T.P.," in two volumes, 8vo.—a curious book in many ways, but especially in this, that throughout the pages of the diary of an eminent literary man of his day, who resided in London during the height of his popularity, not one mention is made of Shakespeare or his plays, so unworthy of notice did the stage appear, it would seem, to the learned and pious Calvinist.

MR. HODGSON will sell by auction Sir Cresswell Cresswell's law library on the 24th inst. Amongst the articles enumerated in our advertisement is a complete set of the Year-Books—that store-house of law and general literature, which of late years has been too greatly neglected, because of the Norman-French in which it abounds. Mr. Hodgson also announces the sale of the stock and copyrights of Messrs. Darton and Hodge.

MESSRS. SOUTHGATE AND BARRETT will sell the late Mr. William Clay's superb collection of modern engravings, famous for its Turners, in the finest state, on Wednesday next. They will also sell, on Monday next, the stock and copyrights of Messrs. Burton of Ipswich, including the whole of the popular series known as the "Run and Read Library."

AMERICAN literature is becoming popular in France. Messrs. Lacroix, Verboekhoven, & Co.—who have already published translations of Prescott's "Ferdinand and Isabella," "Philip the Second," "Don Carlos," "Charles the Fifth at Yuste," "The Conquest of Peru," "Life of Columbus," and "Essays and Miscellanies," and of Motley's "History of the United Netherlands" (M. Guizot had previously translated his "History of the Dutch Republic") and Bancroft's "History of the United States,"—now announce Irving's "Conquest of Granada," in three volumes, translated by Xavier Eyma; his "Life and Voyages of

Columbus," in three volumes, translated by G. Renson; and Bancroft's "Essays and Miscellanies."

THE French Bureau des Longitudes has issued "Connaissance des Temps et des Mouvements célestes, à l'Usage des Astronomes et de Navigateurs pour l'an 1865."

"Le Parlement de Paris: sa Compétence et les Ressources que l'Érudition trouvera dans l'Inventaire de ses Archives: Préface de l'Inventaire des Actes du Parlement de Paris," has appeared.

A NEW novel by Méry, "Les Amours des Bords du Rhin," has appeared in the "Bibliothèque Contemporaine."

A CURIOUS publication is the "Cérémonial des Prises d'Habit et des Professions, à l'Usage de la Congrégation des Filles de la Providence de Saint-Rémy, dites du Bon Secours de Sacré-Cœur de Jésus, établies à Chartres."

"DIANE aux Bois, Comédie héroïque en deux actes en vers, par T. de Banville," and "Le Démon de Jeu, Comédie en cinq actes, par T. Barrière et Crisafulli," have appeared in print.

WE notice the issue of the first volume of a new French translation of the works of Chrysostomus, the eleventh of Bossuet's complete works, and the seventh and eighth of a new edition of Giry's "Vie des Saints."

MORE contributions to the Renan Question:—"Opinions des Déistes rationalistes sur la Vie de Jésus selon M. Renan," par P. Larroque; "La Vie de Renan et le Maudit, suite à la Vie de Jésus," par M. Marrott; "Jésus et la vraie Philosophie," par O. Maurette; "Oratio Synodalnis habita ab Episcopo pictaviensi in sessione solemni, die 25 Augusti, 1863, qua condemnatur liber cui titulus 'Vita Jesu.'"

BEFORE the end of this month, Firmin Didots & Co. promise to issue the thirty-seventh volume of the "Biographie Universelle," containing "Napoléon." The great bulk of this part has caused the publishers to raise the price of this one volume. The forty-second volume will appear simultaneously.

AMONG the recent "Études Biographiques" we find "Czartoryski, Wielopolski, et Mierowski, par Ladislaus Mickiewicz."

"CHEMINS aériens: Projet d'Établissement d'un Système de Locomotion aérienne au moyen de Ballons captifs remorqués par la Vapeur entre la Place de la Concorde et la Porte de la Muette (3600 mètres environ), par Jules Séguin, ingénieur civil"—a new attempt at solving the old problem—has appeared.

THE Berliners have now sunk to the level of the Neapolitans in the good old days of Francis II.—the theatre now being their chief arena for political demonstrations. The other night an actor, of whom it was reported that he would not submit to the dictations of the royal manager with respect to his vote for the election, was vociferously cheered when he entered upon the stage as Ferdinand, in Schiller's "Kabale und Liebe."—In this same play the theatrical censor of the Court Theatre thought fit, under the present circumstances, to suppress passages like the following:—"President: An oath? What is the good of an oath, you blockhead? Secretary Wurm: Not with us, sir; but with that kind of people it is everything."

IN a lately published work by Dr. von Goracuchi, we find the assertion, founded, it would appear, on well-authenticated facts, that there is no city which can boast of so many aged people as Trieste. Among others, he mentions an old lady of that place born in 1740, who would thus be 123 years of age at this present moment.

A RECENT semi-official Austrian pamphlet, written by a South-American diplomatist, called "Mexico and Archduke Ferdinand Max," tries to prove that the Mexican monarchy under the archduke is not an exclusively French project, but that England has quite as large a share in it as Napoleon. The monarchical principle, the author further asserts, has many more adherents in America than is generally imagined, and it has only been the lack of a fitting person that hitherto has debarred South America generally from following the example of Brazil.

A NEW German quarterly for *Volkswirthschaft und Culturgeschichte* has been started under the editorship of J. Faucher, once, if we mistake not, connected with the *Star*. Among the contributors are mentioned: K. Arndt, V. Böhmert, C. Braun, Lette, Maron, Michaelis, Pfeiffer, Pickford, Prince-Smith, Rönne, Max Wirth, and others. The two first volumes contain among other essays: by O. Michaelis "The Chapter of the Value;" Maron, "Population and Landed Property in China;" Lette, "Saving Banks;" Pickford, "The Flourish-

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ing Period of Political Economy in the Netherlands;" Faucher, "Cotton Famine;" Wolf, "Theatre and Political Economy;" Max Wirth, "H. C. Carey, his Merits and Mistakes;" V. Rönne, "On the Obligatory Rate of the American Bank-notes," &c., &c.

THE *Zeitung für Norddeutschland* has been guilty of a most ungallant act. It appears that Mrs. Mathilde Raven "started a story" in the *feuilleton* of the said paper, entitled "A Roll of Gold." With reference to this, the following editorial manifesto has now been issued:—"Through a mistake in the forwarding of the manuscript, about two chapters have dropped out after the third in our impressions. The authoress believes that the artistic structure of her story has suffered considerably by this; and we take this opportunity of requesting our readers, *in case they should have noticed this slip*, to put the responsibility upon our shoulders." Anything more complimentary to the "Frau Verfasserin," than that the public should not have noticed the gap of two full chapters, can hardly be conceived.

A CURIOUS German pamphlet by a Mr. Lemhs deserves notice as being one of those "unbiased" and very original contributions to literature and the general welfare of humanity; which used to be plentiful enough once, especially in this country, but which are, unfortunately, fast dying out. This new benefactor of humanity starts with the extraordinary communication that the first men lived in caves or under the roofs of sheltering trees. Hence he concludes that, building-ground being very dear in large towns, labourers' villages should be built outside and joined to the towns by a street, the houses of which should have flat roofs. At one end of this street the houses close to the village should be made very high, and decrease in size as they approach the town. Upon the roofs a sliding-road should be constructed, upon which the villagers should go to town in the morning to work, and on the opposite side a corresponding road should carry them home again in the evening after their day's work. A calculation of the approximate expenses is appended; and we doubt not that some courageous speculator has by this time seized upon the ingenious idea.

DR. NAGEL has drawn attention in Herrig's "Archive for the Study of Modern Languages and Literature," (xxxiii, 165) to the singular fact that the part in Schiller's essay on "The Legislation of Lycurgus and Solon" which treats of Lycurgus, and which had appeared already in the "Thalia" of 1790, agrees, with a few exceptions, *literally* with the historical part of a speech which Schiller's master, Professor Nast, a learned philologist, held on the occasion of a change in the Prorectorship on the 26th of February, 1792, which bore the title, "On the Advantages and Disadvantages of the Lycurgian Legislation and Constitution," and which was reprinted in 1820, in the first volume of his "Minor Academical and Gymnastic Occasional Writings." The idea of a plagiarism on the part of this most worthy man is the more to be dismissed without further notice as so gross an imposition would not have failed to be discovered at the very first instant. Nor can it be assumed that Nast should have erroneously taken a pupil's essay, which he might have found at a later period among his papers, to be his own. Again, it is not easy to believe Schiller capable of arrogating to himself—albeit erroneously—a paper which the teacher might have dictated to his pupils. And yet one or the other of these assumptions will in the end have to be chosen. So much is certain, that Schiller's "Lycurgus" does not date from the Jena period, but from the time of his sojourn at the Military Academy. He only read it first before his academical hearers at Jena; and Körner, who was present, liked it better in print than the later part, which treated of the Solonic legislation. This certainly is a very strange literary mystery.

EDWARD BALTZER'S "Leben Jesu" has reached a second edition. As in Renan's "Vie de Jésus," the Manhood of Jesus is placed before the reader; but the work in doing this does not impugn the Godhead. The work is likely to be popular in Germany.

PROFESSOR HASSE'S "Kirchengeschichte," edited by Professor Köhler, is announced, the first volume to appear during the present month, the second at Easter, and the third in the summer following. Dr. Hasse was Professor of Theology at Bonn; Dr. Köhler is Professor of Theology at Erlangen.

An essay by G. Böttger, entitled "The Testimonies of Flavius Josephus respecting John the Baptist, Jesus Christ, and James, the Brother of Our Lord," has appeared.

A GERMAN translation of Julia Kavanagh's "Queen Mab" is announced by Mr. Wiedemann of Leipzig.

"THADDEUS KOŚCIUSZKO" is the title of a new historical romance about to appear in Germany, compiled, from original letters and documents preserved amongst the family papers of the Polish hero, by Marianna Lugomirska, a descendant.

MR. PERTHES of Gotha has just published a "Chart of the World, containing the lines of oceanic mail steam communication and overland routes, the great aerial and submarine telegraphs, and the principal tracks of sailing vessels; showing the direction and mean velocity of oceanic currents and important deep-sea soundings. With four additional charts showing the general currents of air, the co-tidal lines, and the lines of equal magnetic variation. By Hermann Berghausen and Fr. von Stülpnagel." Such is the title; and, the chart being chiefly intended for the use of the merchant-service of England and America, the text is entirely in English. This is in every way one of the most important charts issued by the Gotha Institute.

PROFESSOR MAURICE SCHMIDT, whose large and critical edition of Hesychii Lexicon is about to be completed by an additional volume of indexes, has just published the first volume of "Hesychii Alexandrini Lexicon, Editio Minor."

THE German dramatist, Oswald Marbach, has written a tragedy founded on Shakespeare's "Othello"—"Othello, der Mohr von Venedig." The Chevalier de Châtelain has translated "Hamlet" into French verse.

MRS. NORTON'S "Lost and Saved" has been translated into German by Frederick Seybold and published at Leipzig.

VOLUME 672 of the Tauchnitz "Collection of British Authors" contains "Border and Bastille."

A NEW novel, by F. Pflug, is entitled "Blood and Iron too;" another, by Hemsen, "The Minister's Book of Sins," a novel in 4 vols.

G. CURTIUS has written "Commentaries to my Greek Grammar."

"NOBLEMAN AND PEASANT," a continuation of "Mecklenburg in Curland," is the title of a new pamphlet by Otto von Rutenberg.

"HISTORY of the Earth, for Educated Readers," a new work by Rossmässler, is announced.

THE "homiletical quarterly for Germany," called *Many Gifts and One Spirit*, has entered its third year.

THE "Greek Anthology" has been translated into French.

GERSTACKER has written "The Tale of the Tailor who had the Stomach-ache;" illustrations by H. König.

*Paris Chronicle*, a German quarterly, has been started.

"TOM BROWN'S SCHOOL-DAYS" has been edited, with a German glossary and an introduction, by A. Riedl.

THE second part of Dillmann's "Ethiopian Dictionary" has been issued.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

(Anonymous Communications cannot be inserted.)

### CALCSCENCE.

To the Editor of THE READER.

SIR,—In the letter you last did me the favour to insert (p. 511), the second sentence in the last paragraph was meant to begin with "as" instead of "its," and the last word of the preceding paragraph was "frame." As that experiment, in which air presents to certain light the opacity of a metal "frame," is also, singularly enough, referred to in the adjoining column, and is both striking and little known, I will venture to give you my view of its meaning. We must all have observed that, when two flames of any kind that we commonly use are in presence of each other, they do not mutually obstruct any sensible amount of light so as to cast shadows of each other. Two white-hot solids or two Drummond lights would do so, because a point in the line with both is illuminated only by the nearest; but a point in the line of the two candle-flames receives the full light of both, just as any point out of their line does. There is, indeed, a very slight opacity in them, which we make just perceptible by letting direct sunshine pass through one to white paper. The shadow might be thought to arise, like that of a bubble in glass or a concave lens, not from opacity, but from the light turned aside in all directions by refraction at the surfaces of the flame; but that this is not the case appears by the shadow deepening, not in proportion to the heat or rarefaction of the gas, but to the luminosity only. It plainly arises from the opacity of the same particles of solid carbon which yield

the chief light of all useful hydrocarbon flames to their luminosity. It arises, then, from the opacity of the same particles of momentarily-condensed solid carbon that yield their chief or sole useful light, and its extreme delicacy, even from the brightest of them, shows how very thinly distributed their incandescent particles must be. Hence all our common lighting-flames are to be regarded practically as having every part, however luminous, perfectly transparent to the parts beyond. Were it not so, a thin flat-wick lamp, or a "batswing" gas-burner, would not illuminate a room uniformly, sending more light from the broad sides than the edges; whereas we see in walking round them that the narrowness of the edge view is just compensated by a brilliancy always proportioned to the thickness through which we look. But, though this applies to all hydrocarbon flames and many others, most of us may have observed that there are flames, both brighter and less bright, to which it seems not to apply; for, though we know them to be luminous from the envelope far more than the interior (if at all from the latter), yet they do not exhibit that quick increment of brightness towards the edge and maximum at the edge (from the quantity of film there seen through tangentially) which characterizes all our common flames, but rather a uniform brightness, such as to destroy even the idea of the face's convexity, and make it seem flat, as that of an opaque incandescent solid; and this although such flames may be easily proved to be even more transparent to all foreign light than the common hydrocarbon ones. Of this kind are the flames of pure hydrogen, of carbonic oxide, of sulphur, and firework compositions that contain little or no carbon. Now the optical puzzle here presented I believe that only Kirchoff's spectrum discovery has explained. The flat-looking flames we may observe to be purely gaseous or vaporous ones, while the commoner sort yield most of their light from solid particles. Incandescent *solids* emit undulations of all lengths beyond a certain minimum depending on the temperature—i.e., of all refrangibilities or pitches of vibration below a certain maximum. *Gases* or pure *vapours*, on the contrary, as now appears, emit those of certain definite pitches only, the same which they absorb. Hence most of these media, having this affinity for a small portion only of the whole range of visible rays, are very transparent to daylight or that of any luminous solid, and still more to that of any other vaporous source than themselves, the latter containing none of those exact vibrations for which they have affinity, while the two former contain them only in an inappreciable minority. But the case is widely different with a pure vapour emitting rays into a portion of the same substance also vaporous. The different parts of such a flame should be nearly opaque to each other, however transparent to light in general; and this is precisely what the aspect of those flames that I call flat-looking has always suggested—that their parts hide each other. But the "black-rim" observation brings this property more prominently into view. It seems that, among the known elements, sodium stands alone (or paralleled only by the two rare ones lithium and thallium) for the definiteness or narrow range of pitch in the vibrations that itself or its oxide, in a vaporous state, can emit or absorb. Hence it happens that a flame coloured by its presence, even if otherwise owing a majority of its light to solid carbon, has its character so merged as to assume in great measure that of a vapour flame, or one whose light, instead of coming chiefly from solid particles, comes chiefly from a vapour, that of sodium or soda; so much so that it becomes a flat-looking flame, and two of them cast mutual shadows. Now, if they be of very unequal size, and we place the eye beyond the apex of the smaller one's shadow, we might expect its form, projected on the other, to be undistinguishable; but we find it marked out by a "black rim," as if "set in an opaque frame." In other words, a rather larger space is opaque (to soda-light) than is luminous. The soda thrown off by the flame continues purely vaporous, for a small distance beyond its luminous limits, before condensing into particles of solid soda; and the black rim or "frame" represents a section of that layer of the declining temperatures outside the flame, which is hot enough to keep soda gaseous but not incandescent.

It is a truly curious result that, of the two kinds of flames, those owing their chief luminosity to an incandescent smoke of opaque particles, and those owing it to incandescent gas, the former or *smoke-flames*, the only ones that cast shadows in the sunlight, should be the only ones practically transparent, or whose parts do not hide one another.

—I remain, Sir, yours, &c., E. L. GARRETT.

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## SCIENCE.

### ON AILANTHINE.

THE ill wind which has so lamentably blighted our cotton supply has justified the whole proverb—at least in one particular—it has set us thinking on remedies which shall prevent a recurrence of the evil, and on substitutes for the material itself. Among the latter, even silk has been mentioned; and, much as such a consumption would clash with our ideas, it is by no means so improbable as it at first sight would appear.

Dr. Robert Paterson has recently communicated to the Botanical Society of Canada a paper on this subject, which has been published in the *Journal of the Society of Arts*, of which society he is a corresponding member. The natural history part of it is so interesting, and the subject is of such special importance at the present time, that we reproduce it nearly *in extenso*.

After alluding to the interesting changes which take place in the larvæ of the common silk-worm (*Bombyx Mori*), and to the epidemics which are constantly occurring among them, both in China and Europe, which have led those interested in the production of silk to wish for a more hardy breed of silk-producing worms, the author remarks that recent information, through our missionaries in China, leads us to the knowledge that there is a considerable number of worms used by the Chinese, in different districts, for the production of various qualities and coarseness. These varieties of silk are used in China principally for the manufacture of dresses for the peasantry. Of late, some of these have reached this country, and have been considered durable and excellent.

"In 1814 Dr. Roxburgh\* published an interesting memoir on the silk-producing moth of the East Indies; and soon afterwards the Arrindy or *Palma Christi* silk-worm was introduced into Europe. The castor-oil plant, in Canada and in the north of France, is but a delicate shrub; in the south of Europe, however, where the temperature never reaches the freezing point, it becomes a tree of very striking aspect, with large and rich tinted foliage. In such districts, therefore, the Arrindy moth thrives well, having plenty of food, undergoing its changes rapidly, and yielding five or six crops annually of silk of excellent quality. What was required for the Canadian climate was an insect which, while sufficiently hardy to stand our cold springs and autumns, would also be regardless of storms, rain, dew, &c. Such a worm was first sent to Europe by the Abbé Fantoni, a Piedmontese missionary in the province of Shan Tung. He sent some cocoons, immediately after the first gathering in 1856, to some friends in Turin. The name of the tree on the leaves of which they lived was to him a mystery, but he described it as being like the leaf of an acacia: so, when the young brood hatched, various and many were the plants tried for their food, until the leaves of the *Ailanthus glandulosa* were presented to them; these they immediately ate greedily, and always preferred them afterwards to any other kind of food.

"There can now be little doubt but that the Arrindy or *Palma Christi* moth introduced into Europe from Dinajepore and Rungpore in Bengal in 1854, and the Ailanthus moth introduced into Europe from the province of Shan Tung in China in 1858, are one and the same animal. The insects introduced in 1854 were delicate, and did not stand much lowering of the temperature; besides, the tree on which they fed perishes at 32 deg. or 33 deg. Fah. The insects introduced in 1858 were hardy, stood rain and cold, and the tree which they preferred is a hardy one in our climate. Those introduced in 1858, from China, would not eat the *Palma Christi*, and very naturally it was believed that they were different insects; upon examination, however, they turned out to be the same. Their changes, the colour of their larva, the character of the cocoon, the kind of silk, and the characterizing marks of the moth itself pronounce them at once to be the same animal. But how have these animals acquired such different habits of taste? This can only be explained on the supposition that a long period of hardening in a temperate climate, like the province of Shan Tung, would produce in course of time a more hardy progeny, feeding habitually on a common plant of the country, while the more effeminate brood of Central India preferred as food the leaves of a plant which will only flourish in warm latitudes. Unless specific distinctions exist, it is clearly a bad plan to distinguish an insect from the peculiar plant it eats, for this may be a simple point of preference—if it cannot get the one it will eat the other, and

thrive on it; besides, a long period of hardening will often enable an animal to live and thrive on a vegetable very different from its native food. We need only instance the ordinary *Bombyx Mori*, or common silk-worm, the finest varieties of which, after passing a year or two in our climate, will live and thrive, and spin beautiful silk on the common lettuce. Of the tree on which the ailanthus worm feeds, it may be necessary here to speak shortly; we shall have to describe the animal itself more fully afterwards.

"It appears that the tree was originally introduced into this country by the Abbé d'Icarville, in 1751, as the "Vernis de Japon" tree, or that which yielded the famous Japan or China varnish. This turned out, however, to be a mistake, as the true Japan varnish tree has since been introduced into Europe. Since this latter introduction, the *Ailanthus glandulosa* has been known as the false varnish tree. It is a hardy plant in our climate, standing severe winters well, and producing an abundant crop of leaves, especially from young shoots, in early summer. It has no especial partiality for particular varieties of soil, thriving as well, and producing as abundant a crop of leaves in the most barren soil as in the richest loam. It seems equally indifferent, too, as to the characteristics of the atmosphere in which it lives, healthy young trees being observable in the squares and smoky environs of London. The advantages of a plant such as this in the rearing of a hardy animal on its foliage need not be pointed out. Throughout France, generally, this tree flowers and seeds freely, and the seed sprouts and grows readily in Great Britain; but, in addition to this method of propagation, another exists in the roots, which, if cut into pieces like the potato, spring forth and grow luxuriantly; no plant, indeed, can be more easily raised, or more easily increased when grown, than the *Ailanthus glandulosa*. But, to enable this plant, when grown, to yield a proper supply of food for the ailanthus worm, it is necessary to cut it down and grow it osier-like. In this way young shoots spring forth abundantly, and bear large and delicate leaves fitted for the young worm, and greedily devoured by the older ones. They have an additional advantage, also, that when the insects are placed upon them in the open air they are more easily protected by nets, &c., from the depredations of birds, insects, &c."

Dr. Paterson then refers to the ailanthus worm—the *Bombyx Cynthia*—itself, and to M. Guérin Méneville's endeavours to introduce this worm into France, which we have before alluded to. "His first experiment did not succeed, but the following year he reared a satisfactory crop of cocoons in the open air: this, however, and all the efforts of the *Société d'Acclimatation* of Paris were not sufficient to effect the general introduction of the animal into France. It became necessary for him to show that agriculturalists might derive a profit, and a good one, from the rearing of this insect.

"Energetic, and thoroughly convinced of the success of such an experiment on a large scale, he induced personal friends to experiment on a larger scale at Toulon, in Provence, and at Chinon (Indre-et-Loire), the one being nearly in the south, the other in the centre of France.

"At Chinon, for instance, 4500 worms were placed upon flourishing thickets of ailanthus, which had been cut down and grown as bushes with that intention. Their development progressed satisfactorily, and they yielded 3515 excellent cocoons, after suffering, without injury, rains, heavy storms, and the attacks of birds and insects. The result of the experiment was a loss of about a fourth part, while the average loss of mulberry silk-worms is about one-half.

"M. Méneville, after some careful experiments and calculations, which were submitted to the imperial government, has thus stated his profit and loss account on the rearing of ailanthine, or the silk of this worm, produced in districts south of Paris:—

Twelve acres of ailanthus copse, share of expense of planting and annual expense of keeping up . . . . .	2030
Average of receipts from two crops of ailanthine . . . . .	9945

which leaves a balance of 7915 francs for the twelve acres, or, in round English numbers, £330 for twelve acres, or £27. 10s. per acre. In India and China there are said to be six crops of silk annually; in the south of France two or three crops; but in the north of France and Great Britain two at most, and more securely one crop might be relied on. Let us take one good crop, and see how our profit and loss account would stand in Great Britain. The half of £27. 10s., or £13. 15s., would be the result, or about it; and be it remembered, for land, that after the planting of the

*ailanthus* it requires no manure or tillage whatever, and the kind of soil being that on which nothing else would grow, provided always that it has as sheltered and sunny an exposure as possible. It always occurred to me that the climate of Canada would be especially favourable for the growth of ailanthine. The insect and the plant on which it feeds will stand any amount of cold; and, when the Canadian summer arrives, rapid growth would take place in the tree, followed by hatching of the worm; in this way food would be speedily produced for the young brood, and two, if not three, crops of silk taken from the trees during the season. The experiment is one worthy of trial.

"In England and Scotland, for the last two years, some experimenters have been at work, but as yet without any quantitative result. In the spring of 1862 I received, through the kindness of a friend, fifty eggs of the *Bombyx Cynthia*; they hatched in about ten days after their arrival; they were fed with cut branches of ailanthus; kept in the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, but under glass. From the fifty worms (for the eggs all hatched), with all my inexperience, I had thirty-five large and fine cocoons, being a result not far short of that in the central districts of France. With more experience, and with growing plants prepared for the trial, I do not fear for the result of a quantitative trial in Scotland at any future year."

Dr. Paterson then describes *seriatim*, the eggs, caterpillar, and cocoon of this new worm.

"*The Eggs*.—These are about the size of a large pin-head, twice as large as those of the mulberry silk-worm, with which we are all familiar. They are yellow-coloured, equally large at both ends, flattened from above downwards, and with a depression in their centre. They soon change their colour to a greenish black, the colour becoming more marked the nearer the point of hatching is at hand. The caterpillars are hatched from ten to fifteen days after the eggs are laid, according to temperature.

"*The Caterpillar*.—When the worm first escapes from the egg it is exceedingly minute; the colour of the segments of its body at this early age is obviously yellow, but there are so great a number of black spots and dark-coloured tubercles over it, as to give the impression that it is of a black colour; during the second period, that is to say after the first change of skin, the yellow colour becomes more marked, but the spots and tubercles are still black. During the third period they become nearly pure white, arising from the presence of a white mealy secretion over their bodies, destined, obviously, to protect them from rain or dew, as water will not fix on it; the spots and points of the tubercles are still black or bluish black. During the fourth period the body, at first white, gradually changes to a pale green, the tubercles assuming the same colour, and soon the head, the feet, and the last segment become of a golden yellow; the flowery secretion still, to a certain extent, exists, and there are always black points upon the segments or rings of the body.

"During the fifth period the emerald green colouring becomes more intense, the points, as to segments, assume a soft black colour, and the extremities of the tubercles a marine blue. The caterpillar grows rapidly during this stage, eats largely and greedily till it attains the length of from 2½ to 3 inches long; it then ceases to eat, becomes torpid for a few days, and, after fastening a few leaves together at the extremity of a leaf or branch, it begins its cocoon. Such is the general character of the changes which this caterpillar undergoes; but, to enable those who may follow out this inquiry to know when these changes may be expected, and the size of the animals in them, I will give a short table of my own experience, and that of my friend Dr. Gudwad, both in Scotland:—

Eggs hatched, 28 to 30 June . . . . .	size $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch.
First change, 7 " 9 July . . . . .	$\frac{1}{2}$ "
Second " 13 " 15 " . . . . .	1 "
Third " 20 " 22 " . . . . .	$\frac{1}{2}$ "
Fourth " 28 " 30 " . . . . .	1½ to 2 inches.

"From this time till the period when it begins to spin it rapidly grows till it reaches from two and a half to three inches long, depending upon the abundance and quality of its food.

"The experience of my friend Dr. Gudwad is as follows:—Eggs hatched 19th September; 28th September first change began; 5th October second change began; 12th October third change began; 21st October fourth change began; 3rd November began cocoon. The temperature ranged from 47 deg. to 55 deg.

"*The Cocoon*.—I have already remarked that, after a short period of torpidity, when no more food is taken, and during which the remains of the undigested food are passed by the worm in abundance, it begins its cocoon by fastening some threads of

\* *Linnean Transactions*, vol. 7.

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silk to the end of the branch or leaf stalk, and, after binding some leaflets together, it spins its cocoon in the hollow thus formed. The colour of the silks of a yellowish brown, very like, indeed, to that of a decayed leaf. In weaving its cocoon the worm leaves at its lower extremity an elastic opening for the exit of the moth. The threads at this opening are not cut across, but simply turned and laid one over another. The silk of this worm has not as yet been unwound in a continuous thread; this, doubtless, arises from the substance which glues the threads together requiring some other solvent than the warm water which so readily effects the solution of the gummy secretion of the mulberry silk. This, however, cannot long remain undiscovered in this country, as a chemical solvent for this secretion will doubtless ere long be found.\* In China even there is reason to believe that this has been accomplished, as the last examples of *ailanthine* from that country are stated to leave no doubt of their having been unwound from the cocoon. Even the carded silk of this worm is abundantly used. In China it forms the most durable dresses of the peasantry, dresses which are often handed down from father to son. In France this 'flosille' or floss silk is abundantly used for weaving with thread and wool and in the manufacture of fancy stuffs. At Roubaix, Nismes, and Lyons it is imported from abroad in large quantities, to the extent of 1,290,000 kilogrammes annually.

"Mons. Geoffrey St. Hilaire, President of the *Société d'Acclimatation* of Paris, says:—'Here is the report of the weavers at Alsace, who have made use of *ailanthus* silk. M. Schlumberger has found the cocoon very easy to card and spin: the thread obtained is less brilliant, strong, and rough; it left no residue, not more than in combing the thread. It is a most excellent stuff for use in all manufacture where *burre* is employed. The cocoons are easily cleaned, and they will take a good dye. This culture, made on a great scale, will furnish in abundance a finer and stronger floss than the mulberry silk-worm. The worm remains in the cocoon in the chrysalis condition for from twenty-six to thirty days, at which time the moth makes its appearance, coming quickly and easily through the valvular opening at the extremity of the cocoon. At this time its wings are moist, soft, and folded up; and, naturally, upon emerging from the cocoon, it seizes hold of the lower part of it, thus allowing its large wings to drop, become unfolded, and stiffen. If this precaution is not taken when the moths are allowed to exit artificially, their wings never expand, but remain crumpled up, the moth never regaining much activity with its wings in this state, and seldom connecting itself with the opposite sex. In rearing these moths, therefore, it is of consequence to observe that, upon their exit from the cocoon, they have some substance on which they can climb up and allow their wings to hang down and become expanded.'

"The moth has been long familiar to us, in collections of Chinese butterflies, brought to this country. It is large, the expansion of its wings being about five inches; the head and antennæ are greyish brown, the latter strongly pectinated; thorax and abdomen lighter grey; wings, with a broad transverse light-coloured band near the middle, the space within which (forming nearly an equilateral triangle) is brownish grey, and that without ash-colour, running into brownish grey at the margins of the wings. Just within the margins there are two narrow brown streaks running parallel with them, somewhat interrupted before reaching a black spot near the apex of the superior wings; this spot is surmounted by a white crescent, and a zigzag white line runs from it to the tip. The basal portion of the superior wings is traversed by an ash-coloured bar, commencing on the posterior edges next the shoulder, and, after continuing in nearly a straight line for about half an inch, is suddenly deflected and terminates on the anterior margin; between this bar and the transverse scapula line there is a pale longitudinal spot surrounded with black. The under wings likewise bear a similar spot, but more crescent-shaped, and towards their base there is an ash-coloured arched bar, bounded on the outer side with black. The under side differs principally in being paler and destitute of the angular and arched bars at the base of the upper and lower wings.† These moths, when in health, and especially in sunshine, connect them-

selves and lay eggs in a few days. If they do not develop their wings, or the temperature is low and without sunshine, the males do not seek after the females; hence the eggs laid are often, under these circumstances, unproductive."

## SCIENTIFIC SUMMARY.

THERE is good news for all interested in geodesy. Dr. Otto Torell, who was lately over in this country, has communicated a paper to the Royal Society, which is published in their proceedings, on the possibility of measuring an arc of 4½ deg. of latitude in Spitzbergen within 10 deg. of the North Pole, which are would be equivalent to one of 9 deg. in the mean latitude of France, and of 7 deg. of our own Ordnance Survey. The importance of this arc was pointed out as far back as 1825 by Major-General (then Captain) Sabine, who submitted a well-planned and lucidly-explained project to the Royal Society. Major-General Sabine's plan was placed before the Royal Society by Sir John Herschel, taken into consideration in the autumn of the same year, and warmly supported by Mr. Davies Gilbert, Sir Humphry Davy, the then President, and by other members of the Royal Society. The reasons why it was not carried out are not mentioned; but Sir John Herschel leaves us to infer that Captain Sabine was called upon to display his powers in another scientific undertaking of a more arduous though not less important kind.

The plan in question seemed to Dr. Torell so simple and practical, and at the same time so useful in a scientific point of view, that he could not help espousing it with a very warm interest. In the year 1860, the Swedish government and Diet, as well as Prince Oscar, granted funds for a new scientific expedition to Spitzbergen. Being placed at the head of this undertaking, in which a rather large number of scientific men were willing to take part, he did not fail to call the attention of the Academy of Sciences to the plan proposed by General Sabine. The Academy were alive to its importance; and their two astronomical members, Professor Selander and Assessor Lindhagen, who had themselves taken part in the Swedish-Norwegian triangulation, considered that the explorations ought to be carried out; and for that purpose they issued the requisite directions to two of the participants in the expedition, Messrs. Dunér and Chydenius. The survey, so far as carried out, proves that, for executing the measurement of an arc of the meridian, no impediments exist which may not be overcome by courage and perseverance. The Swedish Academy of Sciences consider the completion of this work so important, that they have petitioned government to supply funds for carrying it into effect during the present or next year. There is every probability that the money will be granted, and, if the result turn out as expected, that necessary steps will be taken for executing the measurement of the arc itself.

There is more good news which relates to the great arc of latitude from Palermo to Trondhjem, which will almost rival that of longitude from Valentia to Orsk. The Swedish government has, at the instance of the Academy of Sciences, already furnished means for preliminary investigations in reference to the Swedish share of this proposed large middle-European triangulation, and have asked the Estates for money for executing the measurement. Should, then, the survey in Spitzbergen also be carried out, an important advance will be made, not only towards ascertaining the compression of the globe in the vicinity of the North Pole, but also towards obtaining the much-sought-after knowledge of the real form of the earth on different portions of its surface; and the undertaking will to a certain degree complete the results both of the projected middle-European triangulation and of the Russo-Scandinavian already effected.

WASIUM, which we recently announced as a new element on the authority of M. Bahr, is, we are now told by M. Nicklès, who has communicated a paper on the subject to the French Academy, nothing else but impure yttrium. He points out that the properties which M. Bahr declares to be characteristic of the new metal offer no new peculiarity, and that wasite, whence it was extracted, is but a complex oxide of known elements—in fact, oxide of yttrium coloured by a little oxide of didymium or oxide of terbium. So wasium itself is but yttrium, containing a little didymium or terbium—a proposition strengthened by a table showing the properties ascribed to wasium by Bahr and to yttrium by Gadolin, Eckeberg, Klaproth, Vauquelin, Berzelius, Wöhler, and others.

M. HOEFER—who, as our readers are doubtless aware, has solved the difficulty of the lake habi-

tations of Switzerland in supposing them to be the work of *beavers*, and has sent several contributions to this effect to the Paris *Cosmos*—is by no means yet convinced of his error, in spite of the Marquis de Vibray's communication to *Les Mondes*, and in the last number of the former journal promises us some more information on the subject from his point of view.

M. BERTIN points out, in a recent number of the *Annales de Chimie et de Physique*, some optical properties of ice which should set all who are fortunate enough to possess microscopes furnished with polarizing apparatus to work when the first frost sets in. If one places under a microscope thus furnished a piece of ice about one centimetre thick, taken from the surface of water or from a block, which must be sawn in a plane parallel to the surface of the water in which it was frozen, a beautiful series of rings, traversed by the well-known "black cross," will be seen, the rings increasing in size as the ice melts. If red or blue glass be applied to the eye-piece, it will be found that the third red ring corresponds to the fourth blue one. Mica produces two black spots placed in a line perpendicular to its axis. These effects of polarization prove that ice thus deposited is the product of a regular crystallization, and that the crystals of which it is composed are positive ones, and have their axes perpendicular to the surface of the water. It is singular that this interesting experiment, which it is scarcely possible can be new, is so little known.

DR. JOHN CHAPMAN published a paper in the *Medical Times and Gazette* last July, entitled "A New Method of treating Disease by Controlling the Circulation of the Blood," which he achieves by the application of heat to different parts of the back of the individual. He has lately forwarded a further communication to the same journal, in which he reports favourably on the use of ice in a case of partial paralysis, and another of diabetes. The ice is placed upon some portion of the patient's spine, and, according to Dr. Chapman, so influences the vaso-motor nerves proceeding from the sympathetic ganglia affected by the cold, that an increased circulation ensues through the vessels to which these nerves are distributed.

WE recently noticed a contribution to our double-star observations by an American lady. We have now to mention that a memoir on the centrifugal motions of the heavenly bodies has been presented to the French Academy by Mdlle. Henry, on which M. Faye has to report.

M. TIGRI has recently presented to the French Academy some observations, from which he concludes that, in human blood during special kinds of illness, infusoria of the genus *Bacterium* are developed during life, and that others of the genera *Vibrio* and *Monas* show themselves after death, and are active agents of putrefaction. J. N. L.

## LEARNED SOCIETIES.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY, Nov. 3. Dr. Hunt, F.S.A., President, in the chair. The following new members were elected: Montgomery Campbell, Esq., Vernon Place, Scarborough; Dr. Mackenzie Skues, of Kurrachee, Scinde; Sidney Faithorn Green, Esq., Montagu House, Eltham, Kent; Eric Williams, Esq., Newton House, Kensington. The following corresponding members were elected: Count Marschall, Vienna; Professor Hyrtl, Vienna; Professor Hochstetter, Vienna. The following local secretaries were elected: Dr. A. G. Cross, China; J. Spotswood Wilson, Esq., F.R.G.S., Ecuador.—Mr. C. CARTER BLAKE, F.G.S., read a "Report on the Anthropological Papers read at the British Association at Newcastle." The author gave a brief abstract of each paper, and summarized his results by pointing out that there were read fourteen anthropological papers at Newcastle, none of which had been previously read in London; there were also read nine ethnological papers, four of which had been previously read.—Professor JOHN MARSHALL, F.R.S., Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the Royal Institution, delivered, *vitæ voce*, a paper on the "Superficial Convolutions of a Microcephalic Brain," in which he described at great length the idiotic brain of a female, *stat. 42*, originally the subject of a memoir by R. T. Gore, Esq., F.R.C.S., of Bath.—Professor Marshall exhibited beautifully-executed diagrams of the normal human brain, compared with an ape's and idiotic brain, in which the frontal, parietal, and occipital divisions of the brain were indicated by colours.—"Note upon the Opening of a Kist of the Stone Age upon the Coast of Elgin," by GEORGE E. ROBERTS, F.A.S.L. "Since this subject was brought before the notice of the British Association at Newcastle, I have received, through

\* It has been stated by some that the cause of the silk not winding off results from the slanting opening at the bottom of the cocoon admitting water, and thus sinking it and breaking the thread. This explanation is not satisfactory, and is inconsistent with fact.

† Sir H. Jardine's description of *Saturnia Cynthia*, and corresponding in every particular to *ailanthus* silk-moth.

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the kindness of my Scotch friends, some notes relating to a prior investigation of the kist, which it will be necessary to mention before proceeding to relate my own observation of it: for it appears most desirable that the fullest record of its discovery and the examination of its contents should be preserved. The Rev. Alexander Leslie writes to me as follows from the Manse of Burghead, in which parish Bennet Hill, where the kists are, is situated:—‘In the month of July last year (1862) I went with my schoolmaster to the Bennet Hill (likely so called from St. Bennet of Pluscardine), to examine the stone kists there—three in number; one, however, had been destroyed by the railway cutting. The remaining two were quite contiguous to each other, and on the same mound. In the one we found nothing but the remains of some bones; but in the other nearly the whole human skeleton. These we removed from the kist, and examined them; then replaced them all (but without any attempt as to their proper or natural position), except the lower jaw, which I took home with me, and which I have now sent to the Rev. Dr. Gordon of Birnie, for transmission to you. Both kists gave evident tokens of having been previously opened. It is rather strange that there should as yet have been discovered just three kists and three middens, and all these so contiguous to each other as to be only a few yards apart.’ The coadjutor of Mr. Leslie in this exploration, Mr. Alexander Jeffrey of Burghead, thus writes to me respecting his share in the enterprise, and the present (October 24th) condition of the kists:—‘The stone kists now in existence are two in number, and are situated at the extreme eastern end of the hill. They were accidentally discovered some eight or nine years ago. The stones forming the side of the larger kist are respectively 3 feet 10 inches and 3 feet 5 inches in length. This is the kist from which the human skeleton was recently taken. I am not aware that any bones were found in the neighbouring grave. A third kist was come upon by the workmen employed in the railway cutting about twelve months ago. It was about the same size as the other two, and was quite empty. The kjökken-möddings are also two in number, the largest measuring upwards of 50 feet in circumference. Another lies upon the opposite side of the railway cutting. As far as can now be ascertained, no pristine weapons of bronze or iron were ever picked up at Bennet Hill, although flint arrow-heads of beautiful workmanship were found in abundance. Unfortunately, all efforts made towards the re-discovery of these have hitherto failed.’ I have also received several communications, bearing upon the kists and the middens, from the Rev. Dr. Gordon, who remarks that, although there are only three *large* kjökken-möddings on the Bennet Hill, there are several smaller ones—a fact which my own observation also proved. Mr. Leslie transmitted the lower jaw, as stated in his letter, to Dr. Gordon for me, accompanying it with a note, in which he says: ‘It is wonderfully complete, with the exception of two or three of the teeth; but their loss is little to be wondered at, considering the voracious appetite of their owner, as proved by the enormous accumulation of a mussel-midden at his door.’ The jaw reached me safely; and I have now the pleasure of laying it before you. Mr. Busk, in whose hands I have placed it, does not detect any conformation differing from that of a jaw belonging to a normal brachycephalic cranium; it is apparently that of an individual of 22 or 23 years of age, corresponding in this particular with the age assigned by him to the skeleton. It may be remarked, however, that indications of considerable antiquity are stamped upon it, in the large amount of wear which it has suffered. In commenting upon the valuable communications of the Rev. Mr. Leslie and Mr. Jeffrey, I am inclined to doubt the exactness of the measurements of the slabs which formed the walls of the kist, the estimates formed during my visit to it—severally by the party, four in number—giving measurements which I shall afterwards have occasion to mention. Mr. Lubbock has so exactly described the kjökken-möddings in a late paper (*Natural History Review*, July 1863), that I will not engage the time of this meeting with any detailed account of them. I am glad, however, to be able to add somewhat to his notes. The absence of pottery he comments upon as remarkable. Since his visit, two small fragments have been obtained by my friend, Dr. Taylor of Elgin; and Dr. Gordon picked up another during the visit paid with me. This I now exhibit. It is very coarsely burnt, and of the rudest manufacture. The flint weapons referred to by Mr. Jeffrey have again been met with. The inde-

fatigable exertions of Dr. Gordon have resulted in the discovery of five, which he has been good enough to send me, picked up in the midden *nearest to the kists*. Mr. Roberts then described the remains from Bennet Hill, an account of which has already appeared in *THE READER* of October 24th.—A paper was next read by Captain EUSTACE JACOB “On the Indian Tribes of Vancouver’s Island.”

ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY, Nov. 10. E. W. H. Holdsworth, Esq., in the chair.—THE Secretary announced the approaching departure of the Society’s head keeper for Calcutta and Akyab, to take charge of, and convey to England, some valuable animals offered to the Society by Mr. Grote of Calcutta and Mr. Dunn of Akyab.—A letter was read from M. J. Verreaux, corresponding member, describing the female of *Perdix barbata* (Verr).—Letters were read from Dr. G. Bennett, F.Z.S., announcing the arrival in Sydney of two living specimens of *Divunculus strigirostris*, and his purchase of these rare birds for the Society.—Dr. P. L. Sclater made some remarks on certain new and interesting animals recently acquired for the Society’s menagerie, amongst which was a new ground pigeon, proposed to be called *Phologænas bartletti*.—A communication was read from Dr. D. Walker, corresponding member, entitled “Natural History Notes made during a Passage from Liverpool to Vancouver’s Island.”—A paper was read by Dr. W. Peters, foreign member, “On the *Galago demidofii* of Fischer, and its Synonym.”—Mr. A. R. Wallace read an article “On the true *Hirundo esculenta* of Linnaeus,” and gave a description of a new species of *Collocalia* from Borneo, proposed to be called *c. fuliginosus*.—Communications were read from Dr. G. Bennett of Sydney, containing “Notes on the Kagu (*Rhinochetus jubatus*) of New Caledonia,” and from Mr. G. Krefft, corresponding member, “On the Batrachians occurring in the neighbourhood of Sydney, N.S.W.”—Mr. W. O. Ayres, corresponding member, communicated some “Notes on the Sabostoid Fishes occurring on the Coast of California.”—A paper was read by Mr. J. Y. Johnson, corresponding member, entitled “Descriptions of three New Genera of Marine Fishes obtained at Madeira.”—Papers were also read by the Rev. H. B. Tristram “On the Terrestrial and Fluvial Mollusks collected in Guatemala by O. Salvin, Esq.”; by Messrs. A. Adams and G. F. Angus “On New Species of Freshwater Shells collected by Mr. F. G. Waterhouse during J. McDouall Stuart’s Overland Journey from Adelaide to the North-west Coast of Australia,” and “On New Species of Shells from the Australian Seas in the Collection of Mr. G. F. Angus;” and by Messrs. H. and A. Adams “On New Species of Shells, chiefly from the Curvingian Collection.”—Mr. A. Newton exhibited the body of a great Auk obtained from the Penguin Islands, near Newfoundland, from a deposit of guano.—Mr. Fraser exhibited an extraordinarily large skull of a gorilla from his collection.

INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS, Nov. 10. The President, John Hawkshaw, Esq., in the chair.—THE paper read was “Description of Lighthouses in the Red Sea,” by Mr. W. Parkes, M. Inst. C.E. Having been instructed by the Board of Trade to make the necessary preliminary surveys for establishing lights to facilitate the navigation of the northern portion of the Red Sea, the author recommended three sites—1° Zafarana Point on the Egyptian shore, 50 miles from Suez; 2° The Ushruffee reef, on the western side of the navigable channel of the Straits of Jubal, 150 miles from Suez; and 3° The Dœdalu reef, in the centre of the Red Sea, 350 miles from Suez, and 180 miles from the entrance of the Gulf of Suez. These sites having been approved by the Egyptian Government, by the Board of Trade, and by the Directors of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Packet Company, the immediate execution of the works was authorized, upon designs submitted by the author. Zafarana Point being on the mainland, it was considered most advantageous to construct a tower and lightkeepers’ dwellings of rubble stone, and to employ native labour entirely, under the direction of H. E. Linant Bey, the chief engineer of the Public Works department of the Egyptian Government. The design presented no feature calling for special remark, and the works had been carried out in a very satisfactory manner. The light was a fixed dioptric of the first order, visible over five-eights of a circle, at a distance of fourteen miles. It was first exhibited on the 1st January, 1862. The main features of the other sites were then described. The Ushruffee was a coral reef of which the sides sloped irregularly from the level of a few inches under low water to a depth of from 8 to 10 fathoms, no part being

above the water, and there being very little sand, even in the cavities of the coral. The Dœdalu reef was a submerged island, with a flat top of an oval form, 1200 yards in length and 450 yards in breadth, the sides being generally vertical, or in some places even overhanging. The actual surface of the coral was about 6 inches under low water; but there was a small shifting bank of sand near the south-east end, which was dry at low water, and sometimes also to a small extent at high water. The range of tide was about 2 feet at springs. The peculiar conditions which had to be considered in designing the proposed constructions were—First, the force of the sea would be completely broken at some distance within the edge of the reef. Secondly, the structures would have to be built upon the surface of the reef, and not be sunk into it, as no additional security could be thus obtained, while the advantage of the natural platform would be lost. Thirdly, in the absence of any definite experience as to the actual weight which the reefs would bear without being crushed, it was desirable to keep the weight per superficial foot of foundation as low as possible. Fourthly, the buildings had to be designed so as to mitigate the intense summer heat; and fifthly, in the case of the Dœdalu, as the materials would have to be brought from Suez, and as there was no anchorage, it was necessary that a steamer should be employed, capable of keeping close to the reef in any wind, and of providing quarters for the workmen and storage room for the materials, until a proper dépôt and habitation could be formed on the reef itself. These requirements rendered it essential that the materials should be small in bulk, that the several parts should be light and easily handled, and that the mode of putting them together should be as simple as possible. It appeared to the author that these conditions would be best attained by adopting a structure of wrought-iron supported on teak piles, resting on, and the feet bedded in, a layer of concrete, so as to distribute the weight, the surface of the concrete being a little above the level of high water; and that, by filling in the wrought-iron framework with strong corrugated iron, so as to form a series of rooms one above the other, as a central column, with verandahs or galleries around each room, likewise partially enclosed, a portion at least of the sun’s rays would be prevented from falling on the walls of the rooms, whilst there would be a free admission of air. As the Dœdalu light had only to guard against the dangers of the reef on which it was placed, it was not necessary that that structure should exceed the limited height that would allow of four tiers of rooms, and of accommodation for the lighting arrangements. These together brought the light to an elevation of 62 feet above the mean level of the sea. As the Ushruffee light had to lead vessels past dangers 12 or 14 miles distant, a more powerful light, at a greater elevation, was required. The height fixed upon was 125 feet above the mean level of the sea. The framework was of the same description in both cases; but in the latter case there were eleven tiers, whereas in the Dœdalu there were only four tiers. Details were then given of the Ushruffee structure, as being the larger of the two. It was stated that this structure was supported upon eighteen piles, each 18 feet long and 18 inches in diameter, arranged in two concentric circles. The inner circle consisted of six piles, and was 15 feet diameter, while the outer circle was formed of six pairs of piles (the piles of each pair being 6 feet apart), 37 feet diameter at the top, and the feet spread outwards at a batter of one in twelve. The feet of the piles rested upon the natural surface, and there were shoulders on each side of the piles resting on sleepers of teak, bedded on the concrete 2 to 3 feet above the surface of the coral. The heads of the piles passed through circular wrought-iron collars, to which they were accurately fitted; and any loosening by the shrinkage of the timber was provided for by fitting a number of wedges of greenheart timber into corresponding grooves in the pile heads, in which they could be driven down when slack. A direct bearing surface was also given by iron screws 2 inches diameter, which passed through each collar and entered 2 inches into the wood. The collars had projecting arms to which the bottom framing was riveted. The superstructure consisted of a repetition of three main parts, which might be called respectively standards, cills, and radiators. In each tier there were twenty-four standards, arranged in two concentric circles, and these were connected at the top and bottom by cills, thus forming two twelve-sided polygons, the corresponding angles of which were connected by the radiators. With the exception of a few parts near the bottom no separate piece exceeded 4

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cwt. in weight. The floors of the rooms were composed of cast-iron plates covered with concrete; and from the lowest floor there was suspended a hemispherical water-tank, capable of holding 1500 gallons. The floors of the galleries were formed of open cast-iron gratings. The whole of the iron-work of the structure was erected on Messrs. Forrester and Co.'s premises at Liverpool, with the view of attaining the accurate fitting of the parts, and of testing its strength. While at its full height, with the exception of the piles at the bottom and the lantern at the top, but with the joints merely bolted together, it was exposed, in September and October, 1860, to two gales of wind of the registered force respectively of 20·5 lbs. and 24·3 lbs. per square foot. There was no appearance of any straining of the joints, and a careful examination failed to discover any swaying movement at the top, though there was a sensible vibration. Since its erection on the reef it had been subjected to two severe gales in June 1862 and in January 1863 with similar results; for although the top of the building had vibrated, there were no symptoms of straining having occurred. The general principles of the construction of the *Dœdalu*s lighthouse were the same as those of the *Ushruffee*, with such modifications as its smaller size demanded; thus there were only twelve instead of eighteen piles, and the dimensions of the parts of the framework were the same as for the upper tiers of the *Ushruffee*. The building was stated to be very stiff, scarcely any vibration being perceptible under a strong breeze. The lanterns were of the same construction for the three lighthouses. Those for the *Ushruffee* and the *Zafarana*, being for first-order lights, were identical in every respect. That for the *Dœdalu*s, being for a second-order light, was of reduced size. In construction, they were similar to those generally manufactured for the Trinity Corporation, but with special arrangements for mitigating the powerful effects of the sun. At the suggestion of Professor Faraday, a wind-guard was substituted for the ordinary revolving vane and cowl. The lanterns and light apparatus were furnished by Messrs. Wilkins & Co., the optical portion having been manufactured by Messrs. Chance Brothers, whose improvements in lighthouse illumination deserved special notice. The *Zafarana* and the *Dœdalu*s were fixed lights, while the *Ushruffee* had a revolving light frame. The whole of the materials of the two iron lighthouses, and of the three lanterns and light apparatus, were, with some trifling exceptions, despatched from Liverpool within ten months from the date of the author receiving instructions to proceed to survey the sites, at a distance of nearly 3000 miles from Great Britain. As the structures were designed with a special view to the peculiar circumstances of the sites upon which they were to be erected, it was considered desirable to give some account of the operation of erection. The *Peninsular and Oriental Steam Packet Company* granted, gratuitously, the services of the *Union*, a screw-steamer of 300 tons and 60-horse power, the Egyptian Government paying for all wages, stores, and coal. The materials arrived at Alexandria on the 12th of November, 1860; but it was not until the 20th of December following that they were all received at Suez, and placed on board the *Union*, which then sailed for the *Ushruffee* reef. The expedition thus commenced was unfortunately not successful. The causes of the failure were given at length in the paper, but it will here be sufficient to state the results of the season's labour, which lasted three months. The piles were erected on the reef, and their heads were connected by the bottom iron frame. The whole of the iron-work was landed, and laid out in order, upon one of the neighbouring islands. This was not originally intended, as the plan decided upon was to moor the ship as near as possible to the reef during the progress of the works, and to land and sort the materials upon the concrete base of the lighthouse itself. After a full inquiry into the circumstances which had led to this failure, the author was instructed to make arrangements for a new expedition, and he readily assented to the suggestion that he should remain on the spot until the operations as to which difficulty had been anticipated were completed. The permanent superintendence was intrusted to the late Mr. C. W. Scott (Assoc. Inst. C.E.), Captain W. Kirton being in command of the *Union*. As the materials had been landed on the *Ushruffee* Island, it was determined to form a land establishment for the working party there, rather than to quarter the men on board. This left the steamer free to carry a working party to the *Dœdalu*s, without interfering with the operations on the *Ushruffee*. The staff was re-organised, and

the list of plant and of materials revised; but, owing to several causes, the operations were not resumed on the *Ushruffee* until the 8th November, 1861. The first step was to form the shore establishment. This occupied three weeks, owing to the want of skill of the native carpenters, in getting the huts ready for occupation. During this time, however, some progress had been made at the lighthouse. The caisson of iron plates to enclose the concrete base had been set up, and about 200 tons of gravel had been placed upon the reef, where it was exposed to a wash sufficient to remove some of the clayey particles. The process of depositing the concrete was then commenced, the plan adopted being to deposit it upon sheets of tarpaulin, which sunk with the weight and protected the soft material from the action of the water, until a mass of several tons was collected. When the whole space was covered in this way up to above low-water mark, the remainder was deposited, as the state of the tide allowed, until the whole height of 5 feet from the surface of the coral was complete. The first half of the concrete was formed of six measures of gravel to one of Portland cement, mixed in the lighters moored alongside the caisson. The second half was formed of lime, pizzuolano, and broken stone, in the manner usually practised in the country. The latter was mixed dry at Suez, and was wetted on being deposited. When the success of the process of depositing the concrete was well assured, the author turned his attention to the *Dœdalu*s, which was reached on the 26th of December. A site for the lighthouse was chosen near a small sandbank of triturated coral, as it was determined to use the sand for the concrete, and as it was also convenient for beaching boats, &c. The surface of this reef was very irregular, there being numerous hollow places, varying from 1 foot 6 inches to 2 feet in depth. A four-legged shears was set up on the intended site, and a platform fixed upon it at the level of the underside of the pile collars. Upon this platform were bolted together the plates forming the polygon to complete the inner circle of piles. The six piles were then successively raised on end, and the collars were bolted to the polygon. When the six piles were fixed, the original stage was removed, and a new one was formed, to receive in a similar manner the outer polygon. This having been fixed in place, and the two polygons connected by the radiators, the outer piles were raised. The caisson plates were then set up, being first bolted together, and then partially riveted. The whole of these operations occupied seven days and a quarter, the staff employed consisting of four workmen, and parties of from six to eight men from the crew. The lighter *Ushruffee* was then moored upon the reef, and the steamer proceeded to Suez, whence it returned with 50 tons of cement and twenty Arab labourers, under a native foreman, for depositing the concrete, and having a second lighter in tow. The concrete here used consisted of 3½ measures of coral sand to 1 measure of cement. The first operation was to fill up the holes between the coral lumps with coal bags filled with concrete, so as to make an even surface to lay the tarpaulins upon. The deposit was then carried on in the same manner as at the *Ushruffee*. The quantity of cement, above alluded to, was only sufficient to complete three-fourths of the required height of the block. This occupied just eight days, and then the author returned to *Ushruffee*, and, finding five tiers of that lighthouse erected and partly riveted, he handed over the entire charge of both works to Mr. Scott, who shortly after proceeded with a party of four mechanics, two riveters, four labourers, and ten Arabs, in all twenty, besides the crew, to the *Dœdalu*s. With these, in twenty-six days, the work being carried on only on twenty-one days, the whole framework was erected and riveted together, two floors and the water-tank were completed, and the lower room was enclosed. Two mechanics and four seamen were then placed in the building, with provisions and water, to continue the work, and the *Union* with Mr. Scott and the remainder of the working party, returned to *Ushruffee*. Thus in thirty-seven working days the main portion of the building, now 57 feet in height, was so far finished as to be habitable for a party sufficient to complete the remaining details. Had the ship been of larger burthen, it was believed that these thirty-seven days might have been continuous, and that the whole would have been accomplished during an absence of about seven weeks from Suez. The author referred in terms of the highest praise to the manner in which what might be termed the nautical part of the undertaking had been carried out by Captain Kirton. Subsequently the materials for the lantern and the lighting apparatus were deposited in the building, and afterwards one leading

mechanic, two labourers, and five seamen completed the work between November 1862 and the 1st of February, 1863, when the light was exhibited. At the last mention of the *Ushruffee* the concrete base had been completed, and five out of eleven tiers of framing had been erected. During the absence of Mr. Scott and his party at the *Dœdalu*s, a European boat's crew of six men was engaged in conveying the remainder of the materials to the reef, and in sorting them there. On the return of the working party the erection was rapidly proceeded with, in the face of much difficulty, from almost constant high northerly winds. The time actually taken in erecting the skeleton framework, 106 feet in height, was two months, and the riveting was completed within three months. The two succeeding months were occupied with the erection of the lantern and lighting apparatus, and completing the details of the building; and on the 1st of July, 1862, the light was first exhibited. In connexion with this undertaking the profession had to regret the loss of a very promising young member, Mr. C. W. Scott, who towards the close of the operations was attacked with symptoms, which developed the seeds of a disease of long standing, under which he succumbed after an interval of five months. With regard to the cost, a mere statement of the total amount expended upon the two lighthouses—£55,211 in all, would convey an erroneous impression, unless accompanied by an explanation. The cost of the whole as an engineering work, independently of the employment of the steamer, might be taken at £32,079, including all contingencies, supposing the reefs to have been within a boating distance, say one mile and a half, and half-a-mile from Suez. If the steamer had been equipped at Suez, and had been continuously employed, then, on this supposition, the cost might have been £42,082. The remaining expenditure, £13,029, was entirely exceptional, arising mainly from the steamer being equipped at Bombay.

CHEMICAL SOCIETY, Nov. 11th. Dr. Hofmann, V.P., in the chair. Mr. T. Whitfield was elected a Fellow.—DR. SPRENGEL read a paper "On the Detection of Nitric Acid." A minute fragment of the substance, or the residue of an evaporation, is treated with a drop of phenyl-sulphuric acid solution, at about 100 deg., whereby a red-brown colour is developed, changing into bright yellow on the addition of ammonia. The delicacy of the test surpasses that with sulphate of iron and sulphuric acid.—Dr. Thudichum read a paper "On the Variations of Hippuric Acid in Human Urine." He concluded generally that the variations in the amount of that acid excreted depended not upon differences of internal conditions, but upon the nature of the food taken, and that greenages, which contained much benzoic acid and other allied compounds, were especially productive of hippuric acid.—Mr. S. Piesse read a paper "On Azulene."

### MEETINGS NEXT WEEK.

TUESDAY, NOVEMBER 17th.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—4, St. Martin's Place, Trafalgar Square. "On the Negro; his Place in Nature;" Dr. James Hunt, F.S.A., President.

INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS, at 8.—25, Great George Street, Westminster. Discussion on "Red Sea Lighthouses" and "On the Duty of the Cornish Pumping Engine;" Mr. W. Morshed, jun.

STATISTICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—12, St. James's Square. "On the Industrial Progress of Victoria, as connected with its Gold Mining;" Mr. Chapman.

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 18th.

METEOROLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 7.—25, Great George Street, Westminster.

GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—Somerset House. The following papers will be read: 1. "On the Fossil Corals of the West Indies," Part II.; P. M. Duncan, M.B. 2. "On some Miocene Mollusca from Mount Sela in the Island of Java;" H. M. Jenkins, Esq., Assistant-Secretary of the Geological Society. With a Note on a New Coral from the same locality, by P. Martin Duncan, M.B. 3. "Notes on the Geology of Japan;" Captain Bullock. Communicated by Sir R. I. Murchison, K.C.B., F.R.S., &c.

SOCIETY OF ARTS, at 8.—John Street, Adelphi. "Opening Address;" William Hawes, Esq., Chairman of the Council. On this evening the Prince Consort's Prize, awarded at the last Examination, and the Prizes awarded to the Artis-workmen who were successful competitors at the Wood-carving Exhibition held in June last, will be distributed.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 19th.

ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 4.—11, Hanover Square. Meeting for General Business.

London INSTITUTION, at 7.—Finsbury Circus. "Second Lecture on Organic Chemistry;" Professor Wanklyn. Syllabus: Ultimate Organic Analysis—The Products obtained by burning Organic Bodies in excess of Oxygen are very uniform—Examples of Ultimate Organic Analysis.

ANTIQUARIES, at 8.—Somerset House.

CHEMICAL SOCIETY, at 8.—Burlington House. "Vanadium in Pig Iron;" Mr. Riley. "Quantitative determination of Sulphur;" Dr. D. Price. "Mercuric Organic Radicles;" Drs. Frankland and Dupper. "Sulphuretted Hydrogen Apparatus;" Dr. Phipson. "Ethyl-Amyl Radicles;" Mr. Schorlemmer.

LINNEAN SOCIETY, at 8.—Burlington House. "On the Elastic Fibres of the Leguminosæ;" Professor Oliver.

ROYAL SOCIETY, at 8.30.—Burlington House. "Catalogue of Nebulae and Clusters of Stars;" Sir John Herschel. Note on Kinone. Researches on the Colouring Matters derived from Coal-Tar: I. On Aniline Yellow; II. On Aniline Blue.

PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY, at 8.15.—Astronomical Society's Rooms, Somerset House. "On the English Genitive;" Mr. Sergeant Manning, Q.C.

# THE READER.

14 NOVEMBER, 1863.

## ART.

### WINTER EXHIBITION OF CABINET PICTURES IN PALL MALL.

THE Eleventh Annual Winter Exhibition has been opened at the French Gallery in Pall Mall. The collection now exhibited is, however, generally understood to consist almost entirely of the property of a well-known dealer, who has at least benefited artists as much as he has been benefited or enriched in the course of his dealings with them. It would be better, we think, that the public should know the exact character of such an exhibition as this. There can be no reason in the world why a collector should not exhibit his collection for sale. If he be a man of cultivated taste, it will probably be a more select and choice one than we are accustomed to see in an open exhibition; if he be a mere dealer, he will probably have catered so to suit the public taste as to bring together pictures and works of art that may furnish us with a tolerably accurate gauge of the existing taste of the day. But we certainly think the exhibition should be a *bona fide* one, and that the public should understand its exact character. In what purports to be an open exhibition, we expect to find, and specially look for, the works of young artists of increasing promise. There is a point in the career of all meritorious painters, when dealers do not hesitate to endorse the public estimate of their works by substantive patronage; but we would rather not leave the introduction of genius to the public in the hands of dealers, nor in any way increase their power of ruling the art-world of England. Although we are bound to say that their combinations and edicts have tended apparently rather to the exaltation and better remuneration of artists, yet we believe that the influence of their trade upon the interests of art and upon the mind of the general public has been certainly to vulgarize art, and to blind and demoralize the faintly dawning public appreciation of its real truth and worth.

It may be alleged that an exhibition of pictures, all of which are understood to be the property of one proprietor, may yet be an open one, inasmuch as all artists are invited to contribute works, which shall be equally exposed for sale. Such, we believe, is indeed the case; but the fact is that artists will not send their works to an exhibition except upon tolerably equal terms: and they are quite right; for it would naturally be the interest of the proprietor to display his own wares in the best places, and to dispose of them to his best customers. An established painter will only contribute to the exhibition on condition that his work be purchased. And a young painter prefers to risk his chance at the Royal Academy, where, with all its proved and alleged abuses, his work will at all events be judged by a jury of his brother artists.

After these remarks, our readers will be prepared for the nature of the present Exhibition. The pictures are many of them extremely good; some of them by no means modern, none of them painted probably with any view to the present Exhibition; there is also a scattering of French and Belgian works, all of which we seem to remember. One of the pictures which will be noticed with most interest is Mr. Calderon's rendering of Ben Jonson's verse, "Drink to me only with thine eyes," &c. This is a late work, bearing date 1863. It represents an Italian nobleman and a lady (?) at table. The dais on which they are seated is covered with rich embroidery. An emblazoned coat of arms, with the motto "Dieu et ma Dame," might suggest a worthier occupation than is presented by the couple in the picture. The table is covered with a fair white damask cloth; and before the actors are placed two rich goblets, and the preparation for what appears to have been an untouched feast, part of which we see being borne away, beneath a Norman-arched door, into the kitchen, where it is received by the surprised and disgusted cook. The painter's meaning is not very clear; probably he has taken up the subject without much thought, and merely as a conceit, upon which he could find a fine arrangement of colour, without being hampered either by the necessity of making his story clear or by any other generally accepted rules of art. The picture is, with some exceptional parts, a magnificent piece of colour; there is nothing else so good in the room; and for this we might have been well content to overlook an ugly composition and faulty perspective. The colour does not redeem it, however, from bad taste. The man's companion is simply a courtesan, and one of the least refined of her class, and the action of both figures, to say the least of it, borders on grossness.

How different, how infinitely removed in kind from this would have been Leslie's treatment of the subject! Mr. Calderon has made a mistake, and one of the last kind we should have looked for from him, because his pictures are generally characterized by purity and taste.

Another new and generally attractive little picture, called "Going to the Drawing-Room," is by Mr. Hayllas, who was first brought into general notice by a picture illustrating a humorous incident in the life of Cromwell, exhibited last year at the British Institution. The present work is a clever sketch of two young ladies on their road to a crowded drawing-room. The spectator is supposed to be looking through the open window of a carriage blocked up in St. James's Street. Such a sight as Mr. Hayllas has painted may at any time meet the eye of him who cares to watch the line of carriages that block the street on one of the days when her Majesty, or the Princess of Wales for her, holds high state at St. James's. The painter has seized the beauty and the humour of the subject, such as it is, and we have before us two very pretty girls, with ostrich plumes and jewels, half buried in a sea of crinoline and blonde. One of them turns away, wearied with the delay, towards the opposite window, through which we see the crowd on the pavement, and the bow-window of a club-house well lined with curious, criticising gazers. The merit of the picture consists in a clever, sketchy treatment; and, having this merit, the nature of the subject will probably cause it to be very popular. It is fresh, bright, sparkling, and, though the colouring is rather crude, it is very suggestive of daylight.

One of the best pictures in the gallery is by Mr. T. Carrick—"Nightly Cares." A mother, awakened by the bleating of her child, has risen in the night to give it drink. Her action is full of tenderness and love; and that of the child who receives the cup from her hand, as he kneels on his bed, is natural. There is a fine glow of harmonious colour spread over the work, in striking contrast to the vulgar glare of positive colours noticeable in more than one of the pictures hung in its immediate neighbourhood.

It is always delightful to see Mr. J. Clarke's pictures. Every picture that he paints might be produced in evidence of a gentle, modest, and highly refined nature. The public instinctively felt the presence of such a nature in the picture of "The Sick Child," and acknowledged it in the commendation which was universally bestowed on that work. Mr. Clarke has the main and really important qualifications for a painter of domestic life; it will be his own fault if he do not add to these the concentration of the right subordination of less important parts, and the general truth of chiaroscuro which distinguish the works of Edouard Frère. The two pictures by Mr. Clarke now exhibited are very good examples of his characteristic powers; and we may certainly notice an advance towards technical excellence in both of them. "A Job for the Carpenter" is, as regards manipulation, an improvement on earlier pictures, while the expression and action of the carpenter and the two children leave nothing to be desired. There are still great blemishes in the general effect of this picture, as in that of the other, called "Any Crockery to-day, Marm?" (an admirable work in expression); and we think Mr. Clarke might compare his work, with great advantage to himself, with a little picture, not far from his own, by Duverges, called "The Careful Nurse." The Frenchman has an advantage in his training, which the Englishman usually only gains by his experience; but Mr. Clarke is probably more aware of his own deficiencies than are any of his critics, and we have faith in a man who has no conceit, and whose striking characteristic is a simple naturalness, entirely free from exaggeration, and innocent of display.

The fine landscape by J. Linnell, sen., of the scenery at the Well of Samaria, with the figures of Christ and the woman who came to draw water, is an interesting example of the manner of this distinguished painter. There certainly is a scriptural grandeur in the treatment of landscape by Mr. Linnell, akin to that which marks the Scripture pieces of the Old Masters, and which removes his works from the action of a criticism that would apply to them the same tests as to those landscapes which are professedly founded on the surface imitation of nature. There is not an atom of green in the picture before us, although it is full of trees; but there is a sentiment of time and place that is of more value than green trees. As in the real scene at the Well of Samaria, we should have seen little but the actors, and paid but little heed to aught but their words, so Mr. Linnell, in attempting to represent the subject, seems to have

felt that an imitative treatment would have set our minds upon comparing his effects with those of nature, instead of quietly dwelling, as he would have us do, on the two figures at the well. We believe him to be quite right. An imitative colour is not by any means of necessity a noble colour: and it is almost certain to dominate any subject to which it is applied. Mr. Linnell's picture fails to satisfy us, perhaps because we feel that there is a want of subordination of another kind. It is difficult to say whether it should be characterized as a landscape with figures, or as figures in a landscape. The figures occupy either too much space or too little in the composition. The landscape is grandly conceived; and the question will arise whether the subject might not have been more effectively treated by a greater subordination of the figures. We are inclined, with all due deference to Mr. Linnell's great experience, to think it might.

A scriptural subject by Mr. W. B. Richmond, a young painter whose picture in the Royal Academy last year was favourably spoken of, deserves notice. The subject is taken from the first book of Samuel, chap. xix., verse 17. "The Lord is the strength of my life; of whom shall I be afraid?"—Psalm xxvii. The painter has represented the youth David, brought before Saul by Jonathan, after he had extracted an oath from him that David should not surely die. The evil spirit is upon Saul, who hides his face from David but a moment before he sought to slay him with a javelin. This work, though evidently a youthful one, has evidence of considerable reflection. The action of Saul is that of a jealous and irritable man, who lacks the power of concealing the evil passions by which he is tormented. His figure is well contrasted with that of the brave ingenuous youth who stands before him. The face and figure of David are perhaps too girlish for those of the conqueror of Goliath; but the fault is in the right direction. The subject is an extremely difficult one, and a moderate success is all that can be looked for in so young a painter. Mr. Richmond's effort is not a mean one; and he has succeeded in strengthening the interest which his previous works, in a less difficult field of art, have already created in his career.

A small picture by Mdlle. Rosa Bonheur, "A Scene on the Hills on a Warm Day," represents some sheep taking shelter from the sun in the shadow of one of the large boulders so thickly scattered on the grazing grounds of the Scotch hills. It is but an indifferent trifle from the easel of this highly accomplished painter. There is no truth of sunshine, and therefore apparently no need to seek the shade. The shadows are blurred, and too hot in colour, so that the value of contrast is lost; and the consequent effect is monotonous and dull. Two miniature pictures by Mr. A. H. Burr, whose larger work from Tennyson's "Dora" attracted so much notice in the Royal Academy Exhibition last year, should not be overlooked. They are both painted from nature on the sands by the sea-side, delightfully fresh, natural, and vigorous. Mr. G. O. Leslie, another young artist of promise, is well represented by his smaller pictures, one of which, called "Pump Courtship," is a careful imitation of nature in her most commonplace aspect, not surpassed by anything in the room. A humorous subject by Mr. James Campbell, called "The Old Connoisseur," indicates great merit in the painter, of a certain kind, though it borders on vulgarity. An old pedant, dressed in the garb of Paul Pry, is represented as engaged in looking at the work of a painter, who stands by his easel in an agony of suspense lest his work should be pronounced unsuited to the taste of the old collector. In the background are seen the wife and children of the artist, who appear to partake of his anxiety. The subject is rather a hackneyed one, but it is certainly treated cleverly. Among the landscapes, we notice many works that have appeared in other exhibitions; some of these, of great excellence, have been previously noticed in the columns of this journal. We were pleased to notice among these a landscape study by Mr. F. B. Barwell of "Lydney Common," which, as the work of a figure-painter, is very interesting, and proves Mr. Barwell's sincere love of nature, and also with what facility he is able to turn his hand, as a good painter should do, to any kind of work that comes in his way.

We have endeavoured to indicate some of the pictures in the collection which we do not remember to have seen previously exhibited. There are many important works, both figure-subjects and landscapes, by painters of established reputation, most of which are already well known, and upon the character of which it is not necessary at present to dwell.

# THE READER.

14 NOVEMBER, 1863.

## ART NOTES.

MESSRS. CHRISTIE, MANSON, AND WOODS will this day sell a collection of some of the finest pictures of the modern English school, including works of Callicott, Cooper, Creswick, Dobson, Egg, Frith, Gainsborough, Goodall, Hicks, Hook, Knight, Le Jeune, Roberts, Stanfield, and others, collected by Mr. Alexander Grant, who is quitting his residence.

MESSRS. TRÜBNER & Co. have just ready a series of fifty-two exquisite photographs of the pictures forming the celebrated "Logie" of Raphael, mounted on imperial quarto paper, with the English text, from the authorized version, illustrating each subject beneath, printed in black-letter, with woodcut capitals, and tastefully bordered with lines, the whole bound in morocco with brass bosses and clasps in mediæval style. They have also on the eve of publication another of Lorenz Froelich's series of drawings, "The Little Darling at the Sea-Side," dedicated to her Royal Highness the Princess Beatrice, by her Majesty's permission.

THE plates which illustrate Boydell's Shakespeare, known as the "Shakespeare Gallery," and which form two large unwieldy volumes, are being reduced to a most commodious size by the agency of photography, the work to be published as a "Christmas Book" by Mr. Booth.

THE *Moniteur* reports from Quebec that a monument has been uncovered on the Plateau of Sainte Foy in honour of the French and English soldiers who fell there in the fight of the 28th of April, 1760. It represents a figure of Victory, which Prince Napoleon had promised while in Canada, to present to the Society of St. Jean Baptiste, as the representative of the French nation there. As early as 1822 an obelisk had been erected in memory of the battle on the Abraham's Plain, inscribed with the names of the generals of the victorious and the beaten armies, Wolfe and Montcalm, in one of the squares of Quebec.

THE following new engravings from paintings in the Dresden Gallery have been issued—viz.: "The Family Concina worshipping before the Blessed Virgin, with the Child between John the Baptist and St. Jerome: a rich composition of twenty-one figures, from the celebrated painting by Paolo Veronese in the Dresden Gallery, drawn by Professor Schurig and engraved by Gustav Levy;" and "The Body of Christ mourned over by his Family and Friends," engraved from Rotermund's painting by Gustav Plauer.

OF the following of Kaulbach's frescoes, in the Treppenhaus of the New Berlin Museum, engravings have been published:—"Homer and the Greeks," engraved by Professor Eichens; "The Battle of the Huns," engraved by L. Jacoby; "The Crusaders before Jerusalem," engraved by Professor E. Eichens. In preparation are: "The Tower of Babel," "The Destruction of Jerusalem," "The Age of the Reformation." Of single figures have appeared: "Legend," engraved by L. Jacoby; "History," engraved by L. Jacoby; "Moses," engraved by Professor A. Hoffman; "Solon," by the same; "Isis," engraved by A. Sachs; "Venus," by G. Seidel; "Painting," by P. Habelmann; "Sculpture," by A. Teichel; "Engraving" and "Architecture," by the same. Besides the parts of the frieze engraved by Professor Eichens, are in preparation: "Charles the Great," "Frederic Barbarossa," "Germania," "Italia," "Poetry," "Science," and two further sheets of the frieze.

THE picture of the last Milan Exhibition, "Garibaldi descending from Aspromonte," has been bought at a fabulous price by some unknown friend of the General, who made him a present of it.

## MUSIC.

### TWO NEW WORKS.

MR. BENEDICT'S cantata, "Richard Cœur de Lion," was unequivocally successful at Norwich. The verdict of the large audience which listened last week to the first London performance of the work was equally decided, and was, it need scarcely be said, a repetition of that of the East Anglian amateurs. The effect produced on an assembly such as filled St. James's Hall yesterday week is a better test of the value of a work of this kind than the impressions of an individual listener. The end of such music as Mr. Benedict writes is to be enjoyed by intelligent people; and this end his "Richard" has without

doubt achieved. A few years ago there was no more evident desideratum in matters musical than that which the author of "Undine" and "Richard" has been working to supply. Of compositions of the cantata type there were scarcely any accessible to English singers. A middle term was wanted between glee or madrigal and an oratorio. About the only feasible piece of the kind was the "Acis" of Handel; but a limit was found to the number of times which even that most royal of pastorals would bear being repeated.

Mr. Benedict's recent works, and others of a like form—such, for instance, as Professor Bennett's "May Queen," Mr. Macfarren's "Christmas" and "May Day," Miss Virginia Gabriel's "Dreamland," and Herr Lutz's "Herne the Hunter"—have done much towards filling up this blank; to the great relief of many an industrious choral society, forced before to make its election between the smallest and the greatest works. "Richard Cœur de Lion" is, perhaps, scarcely so good a subject as "Undine" for cantata treatment. The world of the supernatural or of mythical fancy is the one about which music discourses most eloquently. Nymphs and water-spirits, fairies and angels, are people for whom music alone can find a language. But Mr. Benedict has dramatic instincts which make him find almost as pleasant material in a story of mortal life as his great masters—Mendelssohn and Weber—did in the tales of fairy-land. Slight as is the sketch which Mr. Oxenford has given him to fill in, he has succeeded in giving individuality of character to at least one of the personages of the story. The King's music is distinctively chivalric in tone, frank and manful; and the whole work has a bright, open-air freshness, which somehow seems to reflect the spirit of the charming old tale which it illustrates. The points on which one may question the judiciousness of the musical treatment are few and trifling. Another composer might, perhaps, have made the ballad of *Blondel* bear a more distinctly *volkslied* character—the Lion-heart, we may be sure, liked the simplest ditties—or he might have thrown more whirl into the opening dance chorus. But these passing doubts as to the appropriateness of the music in one or two places make no appreciable deduction from the pleasure given by the whole piece. It abounds with beautiful orchestration, and shows, also, no common gift of melodic invention. In the midst of so much new music, which is either not new or not music, it is pleasant to find that there are composers among us who can find melodies which have character and beauty without being resetting of Weber, Mendelssohn, or Mozart. English choralists will find, as repetition makes the "Richard" better known, that they have reason to thank Mr. Benedict for such a pleasant addition to their resources. The execution of the work on this occasion showed the great progress which the Vocal Association has made in a few years under Mr. Benedict's guidance. From a somewhat nondescript body of untrained amateurs it has grown into a really excellent choir. Considering the necessarily short time available for preparation, the performance of last week was most creditable. How the solo parts—taken by Mdlles. Titien and Trebelli, Mr. Cooper and Mr. Santley—were sung, it is scarcely necessary to say. The honours of the evening seemed to fall upon our incomparable baritone. His singing of the slow part of Richard's great *scena* (the love-song with the burden "Berengaria") was not merely faultless, but inspiring. Mdlle. Trebelli was almost incapacitated by serious illness, but earned the thankful applause of her audience by bravely singing on in defiance of it, and thus saving the performance, which could not have gone on without a contralto.

Mr. Macfarren's "Jessy Lea," the "Opera di Camera" which Mr. German Reed's company is performing nightly to full houses at the Gallery of Illustration, is a work as different as possible from Mr. Benedict's, but scarcely less happy in its kind. As an attempt at a new form of composition, it might fairly claim to be judged leniently; but it really needs no indulgence. It is a very pretty little piece, and will certainly not lower its author's reputation. Mr. Macfarren is not, if one may be allowed to speak freely of his powers, a great musical genius; but his long career as a composer has features about it which entitle him to the hearty respect of those who care for what is genuine, true, and good in music. He has the signal merit of always doing his best. He seems always to work up to the limit of his capacity—not giving the public half-finished, hasty writing, out of mere laziness or caprice; not consciously going down below his level for the sake of gain. These ought not to be rare virtues, but they become remarkable by contrast. It is not hard to point

to composers who deliberately manufacture quantities of bad music, knowing it to be bad; spoiling thereby their more important works and ruining their own musical powers. Mr. Macfarren has never, so far as we know, yielded to this temptation. With a money-drawing name he yet refrains from publishing quires of insipid ballads or pretentious fantasias to meet the demand of the hour. All that he does implies a serious devotion to his art as a thing which has a better purpose than to draw cheques from music-publishers.

With regard to the character of his music, he appears to have a natural sympathy with what is really popular—that is, with the mass of melody which grows up among the people in the shape of popular airs. With this natural bent towards what is native, he is characteristically English in his style. "Robin Hood" is a coherent piece of English music, without admixture of French or bastard-Italian. "Jessy Lea," again, is English in treatment, notwithstanding the occasional intrusion of a more florid style. There is throughout it an abundance of light melody—simple, but variously combined. Mr. Oxenford's libretto is in substance a repetition of the story of the "Elixir of Love," not too probable in its incidents, but not extravagant, and, like all Mr. Oxenford's books, well written and well fitted for music. The transparent simplicity of the plot suits the scale of the composition.

The essence of "Opera di Camera" is that it shall employ only solo voices, and no orchestra—a grand piano doing duty as accompaniment. The absence of an orchestra seems to have been more of an emancipation than a loss to Mr. Macfarren. The composition has an air of greater freedom and rapidity than we remember in any previous piece of his. This is especially noticeable in the concerted music; of this there is no stint. Here, however, the composer has gone—and surely not unwisely—beyond the degree of difficulty which would form the average limit of drawing-room performances. To sing such music without book freely, not to say well, would demand a degree of cultivation and facility almost unknown among amateurs. But, whether this enterprise is to initiate a new form of drawing-room entertainment or not, the piece, as sung and acted in Mr. Reed's "Gallery," is sufficiently pleasant and successful. Miss Edith Wynne, as the rustic heroine, shows some gift for acting as well as singing. The music here and there makes large demands on the flexibility of her voice, which is not great; but, in the quieter parts, her singing is delightful. In a simple melody, the round fresh quality of her voice recalls Lablache's saying of Jenny Lind—"Every note is a pearl." Scarcely anything could be sweeter or more winning than the tone. Miss Poole sings and acts her part with all her usual intelligence. The room seems just to suit the volume of her voice. The other two performers—Mr. Whiffin the tenor, and of course the lover, and Mr. Wilkinson, the baritone-rival—are too little used to a stage to be fair subjects for criticism. Mr. Whiffin has a soft and musical quality of voice; but the effect of this is much marred by a tendency to whine or drawl. Mr. German Reed's adherence to the form of an "entertainment" (which is kept up by an introductory monologue) is perhaps a dexterous device for retaining the patronage of the large class who abstain from any amusement ostensibly dramatic, but are tempted to indulge in the forbidden fruit when dished up under the disguise of another name. If this be so, he is slyly doing a service in helping some worthy people with delicate consciences to forget a foolish distinction.

R. B. L.

## MUSICAL NOTES.

M. JULLIEN fils opened his series of promenades at Her Majesty's Theatre this day week, and has been playing every evening to crowded audiences. His programmes are framed on the model of those of his late father, with some increase in the classical element. Mozart's E flat Symphony, given entire, has been the chief classical piece this week. M. Jullien has revived the well-known "British Army Quadrilles" of former days, with all their military incidents, and made a new selection from "Faust," in which is included, by the way, the Walpurgis scene, which is cut out at the opera performances. With such music, a good band to play it, and a well-accepted vocalist (Mdlle. Volpini), the concerts are quite up to the level of such entertainments, and the minor arrangements of the house make it an attractive evening lounge. The only drawback is the presence, in one part of the "promenade," of an evil which must, in fairness, be charged, not upon

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a manager (though it might perhaps be mitigated by better regulations), but on that strange theory as to public decorum which prefers unlimited license to looking facts in the face.

At the Musical Society's trial of new orchestral works last week, a Symphony by Mr. J. F. Barnett, and another by Miss Alice Mary Smith, were the pieces which seemed to make the most impression on the audience. The other works tried were a Pianoforte Fantasia by Mr. H. C. Banister, a Violin Concerto by Mr. H. Baumer, and Overtures by Mr. C. D. Maclean and Mr. James Lea Summers.

M. LOTTO continues to play at the Monday Concerts to the full satisfaction of the audience. Last Monday he showed his prodigious facility by a performance of Tartini's " Devil's Trill." At the concert next week he will repeat a Chaconne of Bach, and join Mr. Hallé in the Kreutzer sonata.

FLOTOW has just composed a new three-act drama, called "Naida," for the Court-Theatre at Vienna.

THE French Emperor's speech at the opening of the Chambers last week contained a notice of the decree putting an end to the privileges now enjoyed by certain of the Paris theatres.

OTTO JAHN of Bonn, the author of the large life of Mozart, has undertaken to write a biography of Haydn on the same plan.

A SET of chamber-concerts, somewhat on the plan of our "Monday Popular" series, is about to be given in Paris. They are announced as *Séances populaires de musique de chambre*, and MM. Lamoureux, E. Rignault, Adam, and Colonne are to be the executants.

M. BERLIOZ's long-expected opera, "The Trojans," has at last been produced at the Théâtre Lyrique. It is the offspring of one brain, the composer being his own poet. The subject is the old, fascinating, sad, ugly story of *Didone Abbandonata*—a story which has been set before by a multitude of composers, Vinci, Jomelli, Anfossi, Haydn, Piccini, Storace, and no doubt many more. The piece is spoken of with enthusiasm by Parisian critics. A septett, sung by Aeneas and Ascanius, Dido and her sister, and some Carthaginian nobles, gained an encore the first night, and is described as a magnificent *ensemble*. Madame Charton-Demeur plays *Dido*. The opera has been mounted in a style of profuse splendour.

### MUSIC FOR NEXT WEEK.

NOVEMBER 16th to 21st.

MONDAY.—Popular Concert, St. James's Hall, 8 p.m.  
EVERY EVENING.—Jullien's Promenade Concerts, Her Majesty's Theatre, 8 p.m.

OPERAS:—

COVENT GARDEN (English).—Every evening, "The Desert Flower."

OPERA DI CAMERA.—Gallery of Illustration, every evening, "Jessy Lea."

### THE DRAMA.

#### MR. WESTLAND MARSTON'S NEW PLAY, AND THREE NEW FARCES.

"PURE GOLD" is the title of the new play, in four acts, by Mr. Westland Marston, brought out at Sadler's Wells on Monday evening. Unlike the other dramatic works with which his name is identified—"The Patrician's Daughter," "Ann Blake," "Strathmore," and "Philip of France"—the present piece is written in prose, but prose of a highly polished and artistic quality. If we remember rightly, "Pure Gold" is the third drama which he has treated in prose—"A Hard Struggle" and "A Wife's Portrait" having preceded it. To those who have watched his progress as a dramatist, working with a legitimate view of producing interesting acting dramas, the present piece will carry the conviction that he has made an immense advance in the art of constructing and developing a plot, so as to retain the interest of his audience firmly centred in the action of his play. In his blank-verse plays it was for the most part the charm of his poetry that held the attention of his audience while he worked out stories in five acts which a playwright of ordinary skill would have set forth more effectively in three, or even two, acts. The story of "Pure Gold" is, by many degrees, the most elaborate which he has yet constructed; and, though it is not strikingly new, it is sufficiently strong to arouse and sustain a warm interest. The scene opens at Baden-Baden where *Frank Rochford*, an artist, with his wife and child, is in company with his uncle, *Langley*, a civil engineer, on his way to superintend some railway works in Italy. This uncle has an unfortunate propensity to gamble, and loses all his ready money at "rouge et noir"

in the society of one *Rinaldo*, a political emissary, known as *Count Manoli*, whom, under the irritation of his loss, he accuses of foul play. The Italian engagement presses, and he is obliged to borrow some money of his nephew, forcing him to take a valuable diamond ring as security for the repayment. Their parting is noticed by a party of the police, who are in quest of *Manoli*. On passing through a wood, on the way to his hotel, *Langley*, who has in his hands a box of pistols, is waylaid by *Manoli* and compelled to fight a duel, in which he is mortally wounded. The pistol-shots have been heard by *Rochford*, who reaches his uncle only to see him die. The police, who have been also attracted by the shots, find him with a still smoking pistol in his hand, and the engineer's ring upon his finger—proofs, as they conclude, of his guilt. So ends the first act. Fifteen years have elapsed, and the unhappy artist's child, *Evelyn*, now grown a woman, and ignorant of her father's fate, is represented as living under the protection of a *Miss Fortesque*, a lady of sprightly wit and good fortune, who had been at Baden at the time of the supposed murder and robbery. *Evelyn* is engaged to *Gilbert Brackenbury*, the son of a poor, but enormously proud gentleman of ancient lineage; she is also sought by *Sir Gerard Fane*, a *roué*, who had been one of the visitors at Baden at the time of *Rochford's* trial and subsequent condemnation to imprisonment for life. *Sir Gerard's* views are wholly mercenary, and he is tracked by bailiffs at the very moment of his visit to *Miss Fortesque's* house near Dover. In the meantime, *Rochford*, for an act of bravery and loyalty performed while in prison, has had part of his sentence remitted, and has come to England in search of his daughter, but with the intention of keeping himself unknown to her so long as his innocence remains unproved. By means of letters of recommendation, he gains admission to *Miss Fortesque's* house, and is engaged as drawing-master to *Evelyn*, and soon learns that his child is in danger from the addresses of *Sir Gerard*, whose character he has accidentally discovered. Upon confronting the *roué*, however, *Sir Gerard* recognises him, and engages to keep his secret only on condition that he shall assist him to secure *Evelyn* and the dowry which *Miss Fortesque* is to give her. To escape from *Sir Gerard's* clutches, and to save his child, there appears no alternative but to tell her the truth; which *Rochford* does accordingly. *Evelyn* is led to believe implicitly in her father's declaration of his innocence; but *Sir Gerard* denounces him as a convicted murderer and thief, and the engagement with *Gilbert Brackenbury* is in danger of being broken off. In support of his statements *Sir Gerard* brings forward *Sig. Lancia*, a refugee, who had known *Count Manoli*; but the evidence which *Lancia* gives thoroughly rehabilitates *Rochford* and confounds *Sir Gerard*, who is bowed out of *Miss Fortesque's* house, and into the hands of the attendant bailiffs.

We have here sketched a bare outline of the story, which Mr. Westland Marston has developed with all the delicacy and emotional power characteristic of his writing. The production of his play was attended with the liveliest manifestations of pleasure on the part of a crowded audience, in which there was a large infusion of literary men and artists. With a stronger cast the success would have been still greater: for it was evident that many of the scenes were beyond the powers of the actors concerned in their realization. In the main, however, "Pure Gold," was well played; and the engagement of Mrs. Buckingham White, to sustain the part of *Miss Fortesque*, evinces the desire of the manager to get the best available aid. The chief part, *Rochford*, was played by Mr. Henry Marston with truly admirable force, naturalness, and manly pathos; and *Miss Marriott*, though sustaining the character of a young girl, caused her audience to forget mere exterior unlikeness in the deep interest which she evoked by her genuine grace, tenderness, and fervent emotion. The *Miss Fortesque* of Mrs. Buckingham White was a piece of very elegant comedy acting, under circumstances which must have made her efforts peculiarly arduous; the applause which was frequently bestowed upon her, however, indicated that the great merits of her performance were thoroughly recognised and appreciated. Mr. Edmund Phelps played the cool, scampish *Sir Gerard Fane* with an ease and point that mark very positive progress in his profession and augur well for his future. Altogether we congratulate both author and manager on the production of "Pure Gold," which we hope may be the first of a series of pieces at Sadler's Wells in which the literary element may be as happily wedded with the theatrical.

Of the three new farces brought out during the week, the most important is a two-act piece called a "Bull in a China Shop," produced at the Haymarket on Saturday evening last. We have heard that this piece, though new to London, has been previously played at Edinburgh, and earlier still in New York. It is one of those *Palais-Royal* absurdities, always funny and generally coarse, like the farce of "Beauty or the Beast," which we noticed last week. A gentleman's family are represented waiting up till four o'clock in the morning in expectation of the arrival of a friend by railway. The friend is *Mr. Bayshot* (Mr. Charles Mathews), who has returned from a shooting excursion in Normandy, and travelled all the way in an outrageous *costume de chasse*. No sooner has he shaken hands with his friends than, instead of getting to bed—being a well-intending meddler—he sets to work at once to turn the house, figuratively speaking, out of windows. Jumping to the most positive conclusions from half an explanation given him by his friend *Tipthorpe* (Mr. Compton), mistaking every circumstance that comes under his notice, he makes it appear that his friend is engaged in clandestine correspondence with a "pretty horsebreaker;" that his friend's wife is giving dangerous encouragement to a clerk in the War Office; and that their daughter is receiving nightly visits from a pianoforte-tuner;—the whole embroil being complicated by the introduction of a baby, which, under his guidance, finds its way into everybody's keeping. As we have intimated, the piece is very extravagant and laughable; but we are bound to add that it is intolerably coarse, both directly and suggestively. The character of *Bayshot* is one that nobody but Mr. Charles Mathews on the English stage can act; and we strongly suspect that nothing but the inimitable grace and *entrain* with which he played on Saturday evening last prevented "A Bull in a China Shop" from being—as on its own merits it deserved to be—a failure. On Monday evening the performance commenced with a new farce by Mr. T. J. Williams, unmistakably adapted from the French, and entitled "A Little Daisy." This little piece, which is of the slightest possible texture, has been written, no doubt, for the purpose of fitting Miss Maria Harris with a pretty *ingénue* part, and admirably answers its purpose. The *Little Daisy* is the daughter of a wood-cutter in the New Forest, and exchanges dresses with the *Princess Henrietta*, daughter of Charles I., in order to facilitate her escape from the Roundhead soldiers by whom she is being pursued. The leader of the Cromwellian soldiers is a sergeant in love with *Little Daisy*, and this honest king-hater has to be wheedled; furthermore, the *Little Daisy* has to deny her own identity, even to her father and mother. All this Miss Harris does with a grace and real *naïveté* very charming to witness. Great applause was bestowed both upon the piece and the actors.

At Drury Lane, on the same evening, a sort of pantomimic farce, entitled "My Heart's in the Highlands," by Messrs. William Brough and Halliday, was brought out with complete success—that is to say, it was received with roars of laughter, by an audience glad by any means, to dispel the gloom inspired by the performance of "Manfred." Two cockneys, having gone to the Highlands of Scotland by a cheap excursion train, have adopted tartan, kilt, and philabeg, in the idea of doing as the Scots do, so long as they are in Scotland. It is their luck to fall in with an old fellow who has come from Canada with a daughter, a fortune, and morbid desire to become as well acquainted with the Highlander in the flesh, as he is with that national type in the wood of a snuff-shop sign. Thinking he has found in the two shivering tourists the very perfection of Highlanders, he plies them with unlimited whisky and snuff, in the national manner, by the spoonful, out of an enormous mull, till they can hardly stand, and nearly sneeze themselves to pieces. He then insists upon their enjoying themselves by putting the stone, throwing the hammer, and tossing the caber; and finally helps them to enjoy the sport of shooting the wild-deer and moor-cock—the results of their sport being produced in the forms of a slaughtered turkey and a fatted porker. The fun, as will be imagined from this glimpse of the action of the piece, is all of a practical kind, and the most is made of all the opportunities given for raising a laugh. The principal character is played by Mr. G. Belmore, who never for a moment gives way to the temptations of his part; his laugh is honestly earned by wholly inoffensive drollery, and under provocations to vulgarity which few low comedians would be able to resist.

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